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THE
POLITICAL STATE
OF
THE BRITISH EMPIRE

THE DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POSSESSIONS
OF THE CROWN.

THE REVENUE, REVENUE OFFICERS,
AND GENERAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

BY JOHN ADOLPHUS, Esq.

OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, ESQ.

BARRISTER AT LAW, &c.

WITH AN APPENDIX OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, FROM THE RESTORATION OF
CHARLES II. TO THE PRESENT TIME.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

VOL. III.

LONDON,

PRINTED FOR T. CADELL AND W. DAVIES,
IN THE STRAND.

1815.

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AND OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS,
CIVIL AND MILITARY.

By JOHN ADOLPHUS, Esq.

BARRISTER AT LAW, F.S.A.

AUTHOR OF "THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, FROM THE ACCESSION OF
KING GEORGE III. TO THE PEACE OF 1783."

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= Div. 432.

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IN THE STRAND.

1818.

Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.

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POLITICAL STATE
OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE.

LEARNING; THE ARTS AND SCIENCES.

AMONG the institutions of civilized man, none are more deserving of consideration, than those which prevent the decay of knowledge by extending the sphere of human acquirements, and facilitating the disclosure, to future generations, of the learning possessed by the present. Great Britain, among her numerous claims to distinguished rank, amid the nations of the world, cites none with more pride and confidence than those which are derived from the excellence of her writers in almost every department of literature, and her able proficient in every branch of the arts. The desire of literary excellence is not recent or transitory; in all ages, and with very few intervals, has learning been eagerly pursued. The universities of England are the most ancient in Europe, and almost every period of British history is adorned with the name of some writer of sterling worth, and eminent celebrity; and although the English idiom is much changed, the ability of authors, even in the earliest times, is still conspicuous. "Numerous manuscripts exist," Mr. Pinkerton observes, "written in the Anglo-Saxon, or Old English language, and one of its most classic authors, is the great Alfred himself. It appears from many works, written long after the conquest, that the French language, though colloquial among the great, scarcely imparted any tinge to the national tongue. The conquests of Edward III. in France, and other circumstances not proper to be here discussed, effected, in the fourteenth century, a change in vain attempted by the Norman conqueror. Chaucer, who wrote in that period, presents almost the first rude dawn of what may be termed the

English language. In the same century, that enterprising traveller, Sir John Mandeville, supplies one of the first specimens of English prose: as he was a man of some science, for that time, has interspersed several words of Latin origin, and his book was much adapted to public curiosity, he may with some justice be regarded in the new light of a father of the English language. Gower, the poet, rather preceded Chaucer; and serves to evince, that Chaucer did not introduce any innovations, but, as may well be supposed, wrote in the language of his time.

“ In the succeeding century, the speech had made such rapid advances, that even as early as the reign of Henry VI. we find it vary very little from that of Henry VIII. There are papers preserved by Rymer and others, written in the reign of Henry VI. and composed with a force and precision which may appear surprising. The works of Fortescue, in the following reign of Edward IV. are not only dictated by excellent sense; but, setting aside the orthography, might even be perused by the common reader.

“ In the reign of Elizabeth, a century after, the English language had acquired such copiousness, dignity, force, and melody, that, perhaps, in the eye of very distant posterity, moderns may be supposed never to have exceeded; what is gained in elegance, being generally lost in power. Sidney's Defence of Poesy, may be regarded as a good specimen of English prose; not to mention Hooker's Ecclesiastical Polity, and other large works of that period, which continued to be read and admired. The common translation of the Bible, is a noble specimen of the dignified prose of the following reign; beyond which it is unnecessary to conduct this sketch, as our libraries abound with the succeeding publications.”

“ English literature,” he proceeds, “ is a vast and inviting theme. Of the traditionary verses of the Druids, no relic probably exists; and the Roman conquest does not appear to have inculcated letters with much diffusion, for while we have classical writers of almost every other European kingdom subdued by that great nation, of France, Spain, and even of Africa; no author of those periods claims a British origin. The country was seized by the Saxons, before British literature faintly dawned in Gildas, A. D. 560. Irish literature commences about the same period, and continued for some centuries, to supply numerous writers in the Latin language, while England remained almost destitute. But Bede, in the eighth century, redeemed this defect, in himself a host, and, like Chaucer, the wonder of his time. The Danish invasions were ruinous to literature, both in Great Britain and Ireland, and the great
Alfred

Alfred was obliged to exert his utmost endeavours, in order to restore some degree of learning, even among the clergy. That admirable prince did not aspire to Latin composition, but translated some works of merit and utility; as the histories of Orosius and Bede, into the Anglo-Saxon. Afferius is, perhaps, the only Latin writer, who can be named between the age of Bede and the year 1100, if we except a few lives of Saints: but the Saxon Chronicle is a noble and neglected monument of this interval, which being the only civil history of England, for a space of four hundred years, ought to be carefully collated with all the manuscripts, and published with all the splendour of typography. About the year 1100, English literature commences a firm and steady pace. A numerous train of historians, poets, and other writers, fills the pages of Biography. In the fourteenth century, Roger Bacon aspires even to the praise of eminent genius. In the following century, the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster were destructive of literature and the arts; nor will it be easy to name an illustrious author of that period; but the introduction of printing, in the reign of Edward IV. forms a memorable epoch. The writers of the sixteenth, and following centuries, are numerous and well known.

“On a comparative view of European literature, it may be observed, that the Italians, its first restorers, excel in poetry, history, and other departments of the Belles Lettres; but about the year 1600, their taste began to decline, and a mental effeminacy arose, which is conspicuous in their fantastic societies and academies, and in the extravagant flatteries which every writer thought due in politeness to another; the term *illustrious* becoming as familiar as that of *Signior* and *Madama*, a waste of literary fame which rendered it of no value. The French even originally excelled in romance and light poetry, and that pleasing and minute species of biography, called memoirs; they have produced few works of original genius, but yield to no nation in scientific productions, and in literary disquisitions, written with good sense, precision, and accuracy. Spanish literature forms a vast treasure, little known to other nations; and scarcely any department can be named, in which excellent writers do not appear. The native German, Danish, and Swedish literature, is but of recent celebrity. To complete the sole intention of this parallel, the grand feature of English literature is original genius, transmitted even from Roger Bacon, to our Shakspeares, Miltons, Newtons, and Lockes; not to dwell here on claims more minute, but equally firm. In the scientific departments, England must yield to France, except in the various branches of mathematical knowledge, the institution of

the Royal Society, and the genius of Newton, having attracted the greatest talents within their sphere, to the neglect of other departments of curious investigation. The English clergy, who far exceed in learning any other body of that description in Europe, have always cultivated classical literature, with distinguished zeal and predilection.

“ An old writer observes, that during the civil war under Charles I. there were “ more good, and more bad books, “ printed and published in the English tongue, than in all the “ vulgar languages in Europe.” Perhaps Germany may now exceed our literary efforts ; yet more novels are supposed to be published in England in one month, than in all the rest of Europe in a year. Our literary journals, in which we may also claim a great degree of excellence, may indicate to foreigners, the vast extent of modern English literature.

“ The present state of the arts in England, is worthy of so opulent and refined a country, and the progress has been rapid beyond example. The late Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford, has delineated, from the papers of the industrious Vertue, a pleasing and animated picture of the history of the arts in this country. Some faint traces of painting occur in the thirteenth century ; but the names and country of the artists do not appear, except that of William of Florence, where the art had faintly begun to revive. In the reign of Edward I. the magnificent castles built in Wales attest the genius and skill of the architects, while their individual fame is lost in obscurity : and towards the end of the fourteenth century, rich monuments of architecture and sculpture are interspersed with some few remains of painting. The Missals in particular, and other manuscripts, begin to be illuminated or adorned with miniature paintings of great lustre ; and as the Gothic architecture is by some conceived to have originated from the shrines for relics, so the larger paintings seem mere amplifications of the manuscript miniatures. But while the neighbouring Flanders began to display many native names, England continued, till the last century, to import her chief painters from abroad, as Holbein, Antonio More, Zuccherro, Janfon, Mytens, Rubens, Vandyke, Lely, Kneller, &c. &c. Yet in miniature and engraving, there were excellent native artists in the seventeenth century ; and in the beginning of that century, an eminent native architect, Inigo Jones. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, even the noble architecture of Saint Paul's, did not redeem the other arts from great decline, till Hogarth instituted examples of ethic and characteristic painting, which have deservedly excited the admiration of Europe. His fame as an artist has been eclipsed by his inventive genius, but his pictures of Marriage à la Mode,

and many others are finished with a care, minuteness, and harmony, worthy of an eminent Dutch master. The present reign has not only been distinguished by patronage of the arts, but been fortunate in exuberance of artists of deserved reputation. To enumerate the living might be invidious, or occasion suspicion of partiality; but among the deceased may be named Sir Joshua Reynolds, eminent in history and portrait, and by his scientific disquisition on the art; Gainsborough and Wilson in landscape, and many more. Though, in the seventeenth century, Fairthorne, and one or two others, shewed great skill and spirit in engraving on copper, yet our chief artists, even in the eighteenth century, were French, till the national fame was raised by Strange, Woollett, Worlidge, and others, who have been succeeded by such a number of excellent artists in this department, that England excels every country, and the prints executed in London attract universal admiration and imitation. Architecture and sculpture now also boast of many distinguished native names; but in music we still revere the superior skill of the Germans and Italians, though our masters far excel those of any other country, and France in particular, where however the horrible discords fashionable for two hundred years, begin at length to yield to the German and Italian taste."

UNIVERSITIES. In describing the establishments for instruction, it is considered expedient to begin with the universities.

University is the name of a corporation formed for the education of youth in the liberal arts and sciences, and authorised to admit such as have studied in it, to certain *degrees* in different faculties, which not only serve as certificates of proficiency in science, but also confer on those who obtain them considerable privileges within the university, as well as some rank in the state without it. Universities generally but not always comprehend within them one or more colleges.

In every university, there are four faculties: *Theology*; *Law*; *Physic*; and the *Arts and Sciences*; comprehending mathematics, natural and moral philosophy, &c.; and in Oxford, Cambridge, and some other universities, music is considered as a fifth faculty. In each of those there are two degrees, those of *Bachelor* and *Doctor*; for though in the universities of Great Britain and Ireland there is no such degree as doctor in arts and sciences, master of arts answers to the degree of doctor in philosophy, which is conferred by many of the universities on the Continent.

Universities in their present form, and with their present privileges, are institutions comparatively modern. They sprang from the convents of regular clergy, or from the chapters of

cathedrals in the church of Rome, where young men were educated for holy orders, in that dark period when the clergy possessed all the erudition which was left in Europe. They have long been considered as lay corporations; but as a proof that they had ecclesiastical origin, it will be sufficient to observe, that the pope arrogated to himself the right of vesting them with all their privileges; and that, prior to the reformation, every university in Europe conferred its degrees in all the faculties by authority derived from a papal bull.

To the universities of England belong several privileges: some have already been noticed, as that of returning members to parliament, and of holding courts for the decision of causes in which members of their body are interested; and some others will be noticed below.

COLLEGES. The term College, in its most extended sense, signifies an assemblage of bodies, or societies, or of individuals into one society. In this sense it is used on the Continent, when a college of electors, princes, or cities is spoken of; and in England, when mention is made of the college of civilians, physicians, or heralds. In the more limited use of the term, it implies a public place, endowed with revenues, where the several parts of learning, divine and human, are taught in schools, halls, or classes appointed for that purpose.

HALLS. In the universities of England are halls as well as colleges; the halls are academical houses not incorporated nor endowed, although they have had considerable benefactions, which are dispensed to the students in exhibitions which they enjoy for a stated time.

VISITORS. Colleges being, as already mentioned, corporations, are by the general rule affecting such bodies liable to be visited. For corporations, being composed of individuals, subject to human frailties, are liable, as well as private persons, to deviate from the end of their institution; and for that reason the law has provided proper persons to visit, inquire into, and correct all irregularities that arise in such corporations, either sole or aggregate, and whether ecclesiastical, civil, or eleemosynary. With regard to all ecclesiastical corporations, the ordinary is their visitor, so constituted by the canon law, and from thence derived to us. The pope formerly, and now the king, as supreme ordinary, is the visitor of the archbishop or the metropolitan; the metropolitan has the charge and coercion of all his suffragan bishops; and the bishops, in their several dioceses, are, in ecclesiastical matters, the visitors of all deans and chapters, of all parsons and vicars, and of all other spiritual corporations. With respect to all lay corporations, the founder, his heirs or assigns, are the visitors, whether the foundation be civil or eleemosynary:

mosynary: for in a lay incorporation, the ordinary neither can nor ought to visit. The colleges in the universities (whatever the common law may now, or might formerly, judge) were certainly considered by the popish clergy, under whose direction they were, as ecclesiastical, or, at least, as clerical corporations; and, therefore, the right of visitation was claimed by the ordinary of the diocese. This is evident, because in many of our most ancient colleges, where the founder had a mind to subject them to a visitor of his own nomination, he obtained for that purpose a papal bull to exempt them from the jurisdiction of the ordinary; several of which are still preserved in the archives of the respective societies; and in some colleges in the university of Oxford, where no special visitor is appointed, the bishop of that diocese, in which Oxford was formerly comprised, has immemorially exercised visitatorial authority; which can be ascribed to nothing else, but his supposed title, as ordinary, to visit this, among other ecclesiastical foundations. And it is not impossible, that the number of colleges in Cambridge, which are visited by the bishop of Ely, may in part be derived from the same original.

But, whatever might be formerly the opinion of the clergy, it is now held as established common law, that colleges are lay corporations, though sometimes totally composed of ecclesiastical persons; and that the right of visitation does not arise from any principles of the canon law, but of necessity was created by the common law.

POSSESSIONS. By the 7th and 8th Will. c. 37. the king may grant to colleges, as well as to other corporations and individuals, licence to alien, and to purchase in mortmain. The 9 Geo. II. c. 36. which restrains alienations in mortmain, also declares that its provisions shall not extend to make void the dispositions of any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, which shall be made in other manner and form than in the act is directed, to or in trust for either of the two universities, or any of the colleges, or houses of learning within the same; or the colleges of Eton, Winchester, or Westminster, for better support and maintenance of the scholars upon the foundations, provided that no such college or house of learning, which shall hold or enjoy so many advowsons of ecclesiastical benefices, as shall be equal in number to one moiety of the fellows or persons usually styled or reputed as fellows, shall be capable of purchasing or holding any other advowsons of ecclesiastical benefices by any means whatsoever; the advowsons annexed to, or given for the benefit or better support of the heads of any of the said colleges or houses of learning, not being computed in the number. By the 13 Eliz. c. 10. all college leases, other than for the term of twenty-one years, or three lives, shall be void. Provided that this shall not extend

to make good any lease for more years than are limited by the private statutes of the college. And by the 18 Eliz. c. 6. in all college leases one third part of the rent shall be reserved and paid in corn.

ELECTIONS. By the common law, all assents, elections, and grants, made with the assent of the major part of the fellows or brethren of such corporation, were as effectual as if the whole number had assented; but several founders of such corporations have, amongst other local statutes, established, that if any one of the corporation should deny any such grant, then no such election or grant should be made; and for performance of the same every person having power of assent was sworn. But this practice being found replete with disorder and inconvenience, the 33 Henry VIII. c. 17. enacted, that every statute made by any such founder, whereby the grant or election of the governor or ruler, with the assent of the most part of such corporation, should be in any wise hindered by any one or more, being the lesser number, contrary to the course of the common law, shall be void; and none shall be compelled to take an oath for the observing of any such statute, on pain of every person giving such oath to forfeit 5 l . half to the king, and half to him that shall sue in any of the king's courts of record. But such major part are to attend in person, and to be present together, at the executing of such act; and the assent must be given by each member singly, and not in a confused and uncertain manner; and this must be when they are regularly assembled in one certain place, and not a consent given by the members in several places and at several times.

BRIBERY. For prevention of corruption at elections into colleges, churches collegiate, churches cathedral, schools, hospitals, halls and other like societies, the 13 Eliz. c. 6. enacts, that if any person who has election, presentation, or nomination, or voice or assent, in the choice, election, presentation, or nomination, of any fellow, scholar, or any other person, to have room or place in any of the said colleges, schools, &c. shall receive or take any money, fee, reward, or any other profit, directly or indirectly, or any promise, agreement, covenant, bond or other assurance, either to himself or any of his friends, for his voice, assent, or consent, in such election, then and from thenceforth the place, room, or office of such person so offending shall be void, as if he was naturally dead. And if any fellow, officer, or scholar, shall directly or indirectly receive, or by any device or means, contract or agree to have or receive, any money, reward, or profit whatsoever, for the leaving or resigning up his room or place, for any other to be placed in the same; he shall forfeit and lose double the sum of money, or value of the
bribe;

bribe ; and every person by whom, or for whom, it is given or agreed to be paid, shall be incapable of that place or room for that time or turn. And the statute is to be read at every election.

FOUNDERS KIN. Several founders have, in their statutes for the government of colleges, given a certain degree of preference, in the election of scholars or others, to those of their own blood ; concerning which there has been much dispute. It is contended on one side, that by length of time, all relation of kindred must necessarily wear out ; on the other, that this cognation still subsists, and may subsist indefinitely.

In the case of Winchester College, and of New College in Oxford, both which were founded by William of Wykeham, an inconvenience arising about two hundred years after the foundation, from the growing number of founders kinsmen, the college of Winchester rejected a claimant. The claimant's father thereupon applied (as the manner then was) to the court of chancery, and not to the visitor, for relief ; and after a solemn hearing, 30 Jan. 22 Eliz. 1579, it was recommended by the Lord Keeper Bromley, and assented to on all sides, for the difficulty of judgment to be given, and it was so decreed, that the plaintiff's issue, for four descents, should be admitted *as if* they were founder's kinsmen, and that he should renounce all further claim to the blood of the founder ; which renunciation was made accordingly.

About ten years afterwards, the fathers of two other rejected candidates applied to the same tribunal for similar relief. Whereupon the Lord Chancellor Hatton, " gravely considering that the
 " publick benefit of the realm for the education of scholars in
 " learning (chiefly intended by the founder) would greatly be
 " hindered, if every of the children of the said complainants
 " (allowing them to be of the undoubted blood of the founder)
 " should be admitted into the said colleges, being many in
 " number, and in a short time likely to spread and grow into
 " more generations, sufficient of themselves to fill the number
 " of both colleges," referred the whole to Bishop Cooper, who then sat in the see of Winchester, and, as such, was the visitor of both societies. The bishop, having duly considered the case, in order to shew a grateful remembrance of so worthy a work as the founding of two colleges, declares himself willing to pay a regard to such as even seem to be of the founder's blood, " so
 " that the same tend not to the annoying, disturbance, or
 " prejudice, of the said foundation ; which the founder undoubtedly meant to make for the publick benefit of the whole
 " realm, and not to be appropriated, and made peculiar to one
 " only kindred and family." He then states the vast increase of
 claimants,

claimants, whereby, he observes, "that if it be not in wisdom
 " foreseen, the number of scholars in both colleges is like to be
 " fully supplied by such reputed kinsmen, be they apt or not apt
 " to be brought up in learning; so that the publick benefit in-
 " tended by the founder would be frustrated." He afterwards
 remarks (what is equally true of every other ancient college),
 that the revenues of the society had been much augmented by
 other benefactors, strangers to the founder's blood, who could
 never intend to confine their bounty within such a partial chan-
 nel. "In consideration whereof, and for avoiding such incon-
 " veniences as might come, if one blood and kindred should
 " have both colleges in their possession and regimen," he de-
 clares the founder's intention to have been, that the education
 of scholars should more largely extend than to his own kindred,
 and yet that some convenient regard should be paid to those of
 his undoubted blood: and, therefore, the bishop directs, that
 there shall not be at one time above the number of eighteen re-
 puted kinsmen in the two colleges, (which consist in the whole
 of 140 scholars,) to wit, eight in New College, and ten in that
 of Winchester; and that not above two shall be admitted at any
 one election into either college.

At the distance of near fifty years, this matter was again
 reconsidered on a petition (as it seems) to the king in person.
 For there is extant an order, dated the 31st Jan. 1637, made
 by the archbishop of Canterbury, the earl of Arundel and Surrey,
 earl-marshal, and the bishop of Winchester, to whom it was
 referred by the king to consider of the claim of another Wyke-
 ham. This they determine to be groundless; founding their
 opinion on the decree of the 30th of January, 1579; and also on
 the great inconvenience that would follow, if the "founder's
 " consanguinity should be so exceedingly multiplied, as it would
 " be to the absolute restraint of the freedom of elections, if
 " such claims were admitted."

In the year 1651, during Cromwell's usurpation, the same
 question was brought before the committee of the House of
 Commons, for regulation of the two universities, and the colleges
 of Eton and Winchester, probably with a view to re-establish
 the unlimited preference of kindred; but all they could obtain
 was an order for augmenting the number of eighteen kinsmen,
 established by bishop Cooper, to twenty in both societies; with
 a proviso, that if more than twenty had already crept in, no
 more should be admitted till the number was reduced to twenty.

Nevertheless, at this day, it must be acknowledged, by what-
 soever means it has happened, that though the annual restriction
 of two in the said colleges continues in use, yet the total restriction
 of eighteen or twenty has fallen into oblivion.

And

And as the limitation of *number* in the said colleges has been attempted, so in that of All Souls in the same university, founded by Archbishop Chichele, it has been endeavoured to obtain a limitation in the *degrees*, for the reasons above expressed; but in the cases that have been determined by the several visitors, no certain boundary has been yet established; the same having been adjudged on the particular circumstances of each case.

So that it seems still to remain a matter of great doubt. For, as on the one hand, it could never be the founder's intention to fill the college wholly with his own kindred; so, on the other, as he himself has been silent in that respect, it is difficult to say, at what precise period his particular regard for his own family and relations, however distant, shall entirely cease. A limitation in point of number seems to be most apposite, as was directed by Bishop Cooper in the case of Wykeham's foundations, in some kind of proportion to what may be supposed, or from the registers of the respective colleges may appear to have been in the founder's days, or within an age or two afterwards; for so the founder's whole institution will take effect: that is, far the greater part of the society will consist of persons elected out of the public at large, or otherwise, according to the restrictions of the respective foundations: and, at the same time, a reasonable regard will be had to those who can prove themselves of the founder's kindred; although it must be owned, at this day, that the proportion is scarcely so much, as of one drop of blood to the whole mass.

There is in human nature a desire of immortality, which expands itself without limitation even in this life. Every man wishes to live in his posterity, and to transmit his inheritance to them at whatever distance. And those posterity, on the other hand, glory in deriving their pedigree through a long series of ancestors, and the higher they can ascend, the more honourable it is esteemed.

SUBSCRIPTIONS AND OATHS. By the 13 and 14 Chas. II. c. 4. and the 1 Will. sess. 1. c. 8. all masters, and other heads, fellows, chaplains, tutors, of or in any college, hall, house of learning, or hospital, and every public professor and reader in either of the universities, and in every college elsewhere, who shall be incumbent or have possession of any mastership, headship, fellowship, professor's place, or reader's place, shall, at or before his admission, subscribe the declaration or acknowledgment following, before the vice chancellor or his deputy: "I *A. B.* do declare, that I will conform to the liturgy of the church of England, as it is now by the law established;" upon pain of losing and forfeiting his mastership, fellowship, or place, and being utterly disabled, and *ipso facto* deprived of the same, which shall

shall be void, as if such person were naturally dead. But by the 2 Geo. II. c. 31. persons who had omitted to subscribe were indemnified, provided they should then subscribe before Dec. 25, 1729. By the aforesaid statute of Chas. II. every governor or head of any of the said colleges or halls shall, within one month next after his election or collation and admission, openly and publickly in the church, chapel, or other publick place of the college or hall, and in the presence of the fellows and scholars, or the greater part of them, then resident, subscribe unto the thirty-nine articles of religion, mentioned in the statute of the 13 Eliz. c. 12. and to the book of common prayer, and declare his unfeigned assent and consent unto, and approbation of the said articles, and of the same book, and to the use of all the prayers, rites, and ceremonies, forms and orders, in the said book prescribed and contained, according to a prescribed form. And all such governors or heads of the said colleges and halls, or any of them, as shall be in holy orders, shall, once at least in every quarter of the year, (not having a lawful impediment,) openly and publickly read the morning prayer and service, in and by the said book appointed to be read, in the church, chapel, or other publick place of the same college or hall, upon pain to lose and be suspended from all the benefits and profits belonging to their situation, for the space of six months, by the visitor of the college or hall; and if any governor or head of any college or hall, suspended for not subscribing unto the said articles and book, or for not reading the morning prayer and service, as aforesaid, shall not, at or before the end of six months next after such suspension, subscribe unto the said articles and book, and declare his consent thereto, as aforesaid, then such government or headship shall be *ipso facto* void.

By 1 Geo. I. st. 2. c. 13. all heads and members of colleges, being of the foundation, or having any exhibition, of eighteen years of age; and all persons teaching pupils; and all persons in general admitted to any office in any such college, ecclesiastical or civil, shall (within six months after their admission, 9 G. II. c. 26.) take and subscribe the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, in one of the courts at Westminster, or at the general or quarter sessions of the peace, on pain of being disabled to sue or use any action; or to be guardian, executor, or administrator; or capable of any legacy or deed of gift; or to be in any office; or to vote at any election for members of parliament; and to forfeit 500*l.* to him who shall sue. And if any such head or member, being of the foundation, or having any exhibition, of eighteen years of age, shall neglect or refuse to take and subscribe the same, or to
produce

produce a certificate thereof under the hand of some proper officer of the respective court, and cause the same to be entered within one month in the register of such college or hall; and if the persons in whom the right of election shall be, shall neglect or refuse to elect another for the space of twelve months, the king shall nominate to such place vacant; and if the person lawfully authorised to admit, shall neglect or refuse to admit such person so nominated by the king, for the space of ten days, the local visitor shall admit him within one month; and if he shall refuse, the king's bench may compel him by *mandamus*.

And if it is a *civil* office (not *ecclesiastical*) they shall, moreover, by the 25th Chas. II. c. 2. on the like penalty, within three months after their admission, receive the sacrament in some public church, on the Lord's day, immediately after divine service and sermon; and, in the court where they take the oaths, shall first deliver a certificate of such their receiving, under the hands of the minister and church warden; and shall then make proof of the truth thereof by two witnesses; and shall, also, when they take the said oaths, make and subscribe the declaration against transubstantiation.

But there is an indemnifying clause in some act of parliament, every two or three years, provided they comply within a time therein limited.

By the statute 13 and 14 Chas. II. c. 4. already referred to, no form or order of common prayers, administration of sacraments, rites or ceremonies, shall be openly used in any church, chapel, or other publick place of or in any college or hall in either of the universities, the colleges of Westminster, Winchester, or Eton, or any of them, other than what is prescribed or appointed to be used in and by the book of common prayer:—Provided, that it shall be lawful to use the morning and evening prayer, and all other prayers and service prescribed in and by the said book, in the chapels or other publick places of the respective colleges and halls in both the universities, in the colleges of Westminster, Winchester, and Eton, and in the convocations of the clergy of either province, in Latin (it is not said of what translation).

And by the same statute, at all times when any sermon or lecture is to be preached, the common prayers and service, in and by the book of common prayer appointed to be read for that time of the day, shall be openly, publickly, and solemnly read, by some priest or deacon, in the church, chapel, or place of publick worship, where the said sermon or lecture is to be preached, before such sermon or lecture be preached; and that the lecturer there to preach shall be present at the reading thereof:—Provided, that this shall not extend to the university churches, when any sermon or lecture is preached, as the publick

lick university sermon or lecture; but that they may be preached or read as heretofore. Several canons also provide for a due adherence to the faith and liturgy of the Church of England.

PRINTING. The privileges of the universities in this are very extensive. It has been decided, after a solemn and protracted argument, that they are intrusted with an authority, concurrent with that of the king's printer, to print statutes and abridgments of them. The 15th Geo. III. c. 35. enables the two universities in England, the four in Scotland, and the colleges of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester, to have for ever the sole right of printing such books as have been, or shall be, bequeathed to them, unless the same have been or shall be bequeathed for a limited time. They may also sell the copy-right, in the like manner as any author, under the provisions of the 8 Ann.

The 21 Geo. III. c. 56. reciting, that the power of granting a liberty to print almanacks and other books was heretofore supposed to be an inherent right in the crown; and the crown had, by different charters, granted to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge the privilege of printing almanacks, which the universities had demised to the company of stationers of the city of London, receiving an annual sum of 1000*l.* and upwards as a consideration, which money had been expended in promoting different branches of literature and science; and that the privilege or right of printing almanacks had been, by a late decision at law, found to have been a common right, over which the crown had no controul, and, consequently, the universities possessed no power to demise it to any particular person or body of men, whereby the payments so made to them by the company of stationers had ceased; enacts, that, out of the duties granted by that act, there shall be paid 500 *l.* a year to each of the two universities, half-yearly, at Midsummer and Christmas.

OTHER PRIVILEGES. In other respects the universities have ample privileges. They have a concurrent power with the archbishops and bishops in granting licences to preach; and several other rights with respect to orders and pluralities. Their charters are respected in many acts of parliament; as those relating to the appropriation of first fruits and tenths; and licensing physicians and surgeons; the heads of colleges and halls may be justices of the peace without the qualification of property; and their members of parliament are in like manner exempted. Within their jurisdictions, the vice-chancellors fix the assize and price of bread, license taverns and ale-houses; the residents are exempt from serving in the militia and other forces; every distinct chamber is separately assessed to the taxes; and many other rights and exemptions of less importance are secured to those learned bodies.

OXFORD.

OXFORD. The origin of this university is involved in obscurity. According to Camden, even in the times of the Britons, Oxford was the seat of learning. Some students removing thither from Cricklade, a monastery was founded by St. Frideswide, in the time of the Saxons, which was burned and rebuilt by king Ethelred. When the Danes were reduced by Alfred, that prince is said to have founded three colleges, one for philosophy, another for grammar, and a third for divinity, in the year 886; so that, on this consideration, Alfred seems rather the restorer than the founder.

GOVERNMENT. The University of Oxford is under the management of the following officers:

CHANCELLOR. The Chancellor is usually a nobleman, and is elected by the students for life; diplomas, or letters of degrees, provisions, &c. given in the university, pass under his seal, and he is to govern the university, preserve and defend its rights and privileges, convoke assemblies, and administer justice among the members under his jurisdiction.

HIGH STEWARD. The High Steward is nominated by the chancellor, and approved by the university; his appointment is for life; he assists the chancellor in the execution of his various duties; and sits as judge in the courts of the university.

VICE CHANCELLOR. The Vice Chancellor is always in orders, and the head of a college; he is nominated by the chancellor, and elected by the university in convocation, annually. He exercises the chancellor's power, and keeps the officers and students to their duty. He also appoints four officers under the name of *pro-vice-chancellors*, collected from the heads of colleges, to officiate in his absence.

PROCTORS. There are two Proctors, who are masters of arts chosen yearly out of the several colleges in turn, to keep the peace, punish disorders, oversee weights and measures, order scholastick exercises, and the admission to degrees.

PUBLICK ORATOR. The duty of the Publick Orator is, to write letters by order of the convocation, and to harangue princes and other great men, when they visit the university.

OTHER OFFICERS. The remaining officers are, *a keeper of the archives*; *a register*, who records all transactions of the convocation, &c; three *esquire beadles*, with gilt silver maces; and three *yeoman beadles*, with plain ones, who attend the vice-chancellor in publick, execute his orders for apprehending delinquents, publish the courts of convocation, and conduct the preachers to church, and lecturers to school; and a *verger*, who, on solemn occasions, walks with the beadles before the vice-chancellor, and carries a silver rod.

COLLEGES

COLLEGES AND HALLS. In Oxford there are twenty Colleges and five Halls. Of each some slight description will be given, premising a general character in the quaint language of Fuller.—“Of the colleges,” he says, “University is the oldest, Pembroke the youngest, Christ Church the greatest, Lincoln (by many reputed) the least, Magdalen the neatest, Wadham the most uniform, New College the strongest, and Jesus College (no fault but its unhappiness) the poorest; and if I knew which was the richest, I would not tell, seeing concealment in this kind is the safest. New College is more proper for southern, Exeter for western, Queen’s for northern, Brazen-nose for north-western men, St. John’s for Londoners, Jesus for Welshmen; and at other colleges almost indifferently for men of all countries. Merton has been most famous for schoolmen, Corpus Christi (formerly called *Trilingue Collegium*) for linguists, Christ Church for poets, All Souls for orators, New College for civilians, Brazen-nose for disputants, Queen’s College for metaphysicians, Exeter for a late series of regius professors; Magdalen for ancient, St. John’s for modern prelates: and all eminent for some one kind or other. And if any of these colleges were transported into foreign parts, it would alter its kind, (or degree at least,) and presently of a college proceed an university, as equal to most, and superior to many, academies beyond the sea.”

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE. The origin of this college is ascribed to Alfred, who, in 872, erected certain halls in Oxford, near, or on, the spot where this college stands, and gave the students small pensions, issuing from the exchequer; but these halls were soon alienated, and the pensions suppressed about the reign of the Conqueror. The founder of this college appears, therefore, to be William, archdeacon of Durham, who, in 1219, purchased one of the halls, endowed it with land, and founded ten or more fellowships for natives of the county of Durham, which were soon reduced to two. Succeeding benefactors improved the revenues and buildings of the society. Of these the most considerable are Walter Skirlaw, bishop of Durham, who procured lands from Henry IV. and founded three fellowships for the dioceses of York and Durham. Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland, lord of the Honour of Cockermouth, in 1442, added three fellowships for the dioceses of Durham, York, and Carlisle, with a preference to natives of the county of Northumberland; and Sir Simon Benet established four fellowships and four scholarships, to which all persons born in the province of Canterbury, are eligible. This college is *situate* on the south side of the High-street, Oxford, where its front extends more than 260 feet in length. It has two gate-ways, with

with a tower over each, at equal distances from the extremities of the building. That on the west leads into the old court, a handsome Gothic quadrangle, 100 feet square; and above the gateway are two statues; one on the outside of Queen Anne, another within of James II. Above the other gateway, on the outside, is a statue of Queen Mary, daughter of James II., and another within of Dr. John Radcliffe. This entrance leads into a smaller court of three sides, each about 80 feet in length, open to a garden on the south. The east and part of the north side, are occupied by the lodgings of the master. On the south side of the western quadrangle stand the chapel and hall. That part of the building has lately undergone a considerable alteration, by the lengthening of the windows, the addition of buttresses, battlements, and pinnacles, and the changing of the former clumsy centre into an elegant Gothic bow window and pediment. The *chapel* is adorned with painted windows, and many monuments of eminent men; and the *hall*, which was fitted up some years since, in the Gothic style, and lately received considerable improvements, is now one of the most beautiful rooms in Oxford.

No part of the buildings of this college can boast of any antiquity. The present spacious and uniform structure was begun in 1634, by the Rev. Charles Greenwood, formerly a fellow. The work was carried on by Sir Simon Benet; and, by the assistance of succeeding patrons, the western quadrangle was finished in 1665. Dr. John Radcliffe gave by will 5000*l.* for building the north and east sides of the other quadrangle, and also left his Yorkshire estate in trust to the society, charged with the payment of 600*l.* to two travelling fellows, students in medicine, to whom he ordered apartments to be appropriated in that part of the building.

The present *society* consists of a master, twelve fellows, and seventeen scholars, with other students, amounting in the whole to about seventy.

Visitor. The king.

BALIOI COLLEGE. Sir John Baliol, of Bernard Castle in Yorkshire, father of John Baliol, king of Scotland, first designed the foundation of this college for the education of scholars, to whom he gave yearly exhibitions; but, dying before he purchased land, he recommended his design to his widow Devorguilla, daughter of Alexander III., king of Scotland, who first settled these exhibitions; and, in 1284, purchased a tenement for her scholars of Baliol, and conveyed it to the masters and scholars of this house for ever for their habitation, having obtained a royal charter for that purpose. She afterwards added several new buildings to it, and settled lands for the maintenance

of the scholars, dedicating her foundation to the honour of the Holy Trinity, the blessed Virgin, and St Katherine the martyr; which benefactions were afterwards ratified by her son John Baliol, king of Scotland, and Oliver, bishop of Lincoln, in whose diocese Oxford then was. The value of the lands and revenues belonging to this college did not exceed 27*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* per ann. at that time; but the estates were soon afterward greatly enlarged by the benefactions of others, particularly Sir Philip Somerville and Dr. John Warner, bishop of Rochester, who founded four Scottish exhibitions, endowing them with a revenue, which has since been augmented by John Snell, Esq.

Baliol college is situated in Broad-street, and consists chiefly of one court, which is entered through a Gothic gateway. The buildings about this court are ancient, except the east end, which is finished in the manner in which the rest of that quadrangle may be built.

The *Chapel* stands at the north east angle of the great court. The great east window, which is well executed, represents the passion, resurrection, and ascension of Christ.

The *Hall* is at the west end of the same court.

In the master's lodgings are some good rooms, particularly a spacious hall, having a well preserved ancient window to the east.

The *Library* is furnished with a large collection of useful books, and many ancient manuscripts. Over the gate of the college are the arms of the Baliol family. Besides this court, there is an area to the north-west, consisting of several detached lodgings for the students; and an elegant new building, rather resembling a modern dwelling-house, with a beautiful front to the street, erected at the expence of Mr Fisher, late fellow of this society, in which are several handsome apartments.

The *Members* of this society are a master, twelve fellows, fourteen scholars, and eighteen exhibitioners.

Visitor. The master and fellows elect their visitor.

MERTON COLLEGE. The society of Merton, consisting of a warden and about the same number of scholars or fellows as at present, was first placed at Maldon in Surry, (but with a provision for the abode and residence of the chief part of them in Oxford), in 1264, the 48th year of Henry III., by Walter de Merton, some time lord chancellor of England. The instrument of endowment, with the statutes under the broad seal, the founder's, the bishop of the diocese's, and that of his chapter, are in the college treasury, and deemed to be the first charter of the kind in Europe. The statutes were finally established under the broad seal and his own, in 1274, the second of Edward I. Such was the origin of this ancient society, by these charters incorporated,

incorporated, and endowed with almost all the lands they at this time possess, and provided with the same statutes, by which, without any alteration or addition, they are now governed. These, by the recourse had to them, were of much use to the after-foundations both in Oxford and Cambridge; and, with so much prudence was this college founded, that Edward I. recommended it to Hugh de Balsam, bishop of Ely, as a model for his intended munificence in Cambridge; according to which Peterhouse was afterwards erected in that university.

There are also in this house *post-masters*, who are of a distinct and different foundation, which took place about an hundred years after the other. The number, and their revenues, have been since increased by several benefactors. Besides the post-masters, there are four other scholars of the foundation of Mr. Henry Jackson, formerly of this college, which commenced in 1753. In the election of a warden, the fellows choose three persons, whom they present to their visitor, who appoints one of them.

Merton College is situated east of Corpus Christi; from which it is separated by a small grove of elms, and consists of three courts. The largest, or inner court, is 110 feet long, and 100 broad, and was erected in 1610; from the south apartments there is a pleasant prospect over the meadows. The terrace in the gardens, formed on the city wall, is no less well situated for a prospect. The *gardens*, for their pleasing variety, are generally much resorted to in summer.

The *Chapel*, at the west end of the first court, is likewise the parish church of St John Baptist de Merton. It is one of the largest and best proportioned Gothic structures in the university, 100 feet in length and 30 in breadth, and has a very capacious tower and ante-chapel. But, large as it is at present, it has been thought, from its whole appearance, and from the form and manner of the arches closed up in the wall of the west end, on each hand of the great window, to have been built with a view to a farther addition of a nave and side aisles, the present building being no more than the choir and cross-aisle. Such a design was more easy to be imagined than executed; and, after all, most likely reached no farther than the carrying on the building, as far as it went, in the cathedral manner.

In the *Hall*, to which the ascent is by a flight of steps, is a well imagined picture, by the late Dr. Wall, representing the expulsion of idle monks to make room for the liberal education of youth, designed by the founder.

The *Library* is in the small old quadrangle, south of the chapel, and is furnished with some ancient and modern books, and some manuscripts.

The *members* are, a warden, twenty-four fellows, fourteen post-masters, Mr Jackson's four scholars, two chaplains, and two clerks.

Visitor. The archbishop of Canterbury.

Oriel College. This college was founded by Edward II. on petition of Adam de Brome, his almoner, in 1324, who was the first provost. Edward III. gave the large messuage of *Le Oriel*, situated in St John's parish, by which name the college was afterwards called, and whence it has been frequently held to be a royal foundation. He likewise gave the hospital of Saint Bartholomew, near Oxford, with the lands thereunto belonging. Other benefactors were John Frank, master of the rolls in the reign of Henry VI., who gave 1000*l.* to purchase lands for the maintenance of four fellows; John Carpenter, formerly provost, and afterwards bishop of Worcester; William Smith, bishop of Lincoln; and Dr Richard Dudley, sometime fellow, and afterwards chancellor of the church of Sarum, who gave the manor of Swainswick in Somersetshire for the maintenance of two fellows and six exhibitioners; Dr John Tolson, who was provost in 1640, gave 1150*l.* toward the buildings of the quadrangle, besides other considerable donations. Queen Anne annexed a prebend of Rochester to the provostship for ever; Dr. Robinson, bishop of London, besides the new building, gave 2500*l.* to augment the fellowships and to found three exhibitions; Dr. Carter not only left money for the erection of the opposite wing, but also for the purchase of livings for the benefit of the provost and fellows. The late duke of Beaufort gave 100*l.* per ann. for four exhibitioners.

Oriel College is situated between St. Mary's church on the north, Corpus Christi College on the south, and Christ Church on the west; the entrance is on the west. It chiefly consists of one regular, uniform, and well built quadrangle; on the north side whereof are the provost's lodgings; on the east the hall, and the entrance into the chapel, which runs eastward from thence, and on the south and west sides are the chambers of the fellows and other students.

Opposite to the great gate, a large flight of steps, having a portico over them, leads to the *hall*, which is a well proportioned room, handsomely wainscotted, with a Doric entablature, and adorned with portraits.

The *chapel* has that beauty which is derived from a decent simplicity.

The *library* is an elegant modern building, in which are placed the late Lord Leigh's library, given to the society.

The *Members* are, a provost, eighteen fellows, and thirteen exhibitioners.

Visitor. The lord chancellor.

EXETER COLLEGE. This college derives its foundation from Walter Stapledon, bishop of Exeter, lord treasurer of England, and secretary of state to Edward II., who, in 1316, obtained a charter for founding a college where Hertford college now stands; but wanting room for the buildings he designed, he removed his scholars to the present house, and called it Stapledon Hall, after his own name. He founded a society consisting of thirteen, i. e. a rector and twelve fellows; one of whom, the chaplain, to be appointed by the dean and chapter of Exeter, Totness, and Barnstaple, in Devonshire, and four from the archdeaconry of Cornwall. Among the subsequent benefactors was Edmond Stafford, bishop of Exeter, who obtained leave to alter the name of this house, and settled two fellowships for the diocese of Sarum. Sir William Petre, in Elizabeth's time, obtained a new charter and statutes, founded eight fellowships for such counties wherever he then had, or his heirs at any time after should have estates; which, by this time, comprehends most of the counties in England. Charles I. added one fellowship for the islands of Jersey and Guernsey; and by Mrs. Shier's benefaction, as completed and settled by Dr. Hugh Shortrige, two other fellowships were added, confined to the counties of Hertford and Surry; besides considerable augmentations to the revenues of the society. The last benefactor was the learned Mr. Joseph Sandford, of Baliol College, who gave this society his valuable library; for the reception of which, they, in the year 1781, erected a neat modern edifice in a part of their garden near their former library.

Exeter College is situated opposite Jesus College; its front is 220 feet long, having in the centre a magnificent gate and tower. The composition of each front, (viz. that towards the street and that towards the quadrangle), is a rustic basement, which forms the gateway; a plinth, whereupon are placed four pilasters of the Ionic order, supporting a semi-circular pediment, in the area of which are the founder's arms, on a shield adorned with festoons, finishing with a balustrade above all. This, with the beautiful arched roof of the gateway, is justly esteemed an elegant piece of workmanship. The building within chiefly consists of a large quadrangle, formed by the hall, the chapel, the rector's lodgings, and the chambers of the fellows and scholars, and is regular and uniform.

The *Gardens* are neatly disposed; and, though within the town, have an airy and pleasant opening to the east, and a terrace

race commanding a view of some of the finest buildings in the university.

The *Library* is well furnished with books in the several arts and sciences, and a very valuable collection of classics given by Edward Richards Esq.

The *Members* are, a rector, twenty-five fellows, one scholar, who is bible-clerk, and two exhibitioners.

Visitor. The bishop of Exeter.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE. Robert Egglesfield, a native of Cumberland, confessor of Queen Philippa, and bachelor of divinity in the university of Oxford, having purchased several tenements in the parish of Saint Peter in the east, erected there a collegiate hall, probably by the encouragement of Queen Philippa, consort of Edward III. giving it the name of *Aula Scholarium Regine de Oxon*; and, on the 18th of January 1340, obtained the royal charter for incorporating the society of this hall or college; by virtue whereof, he constituted a provost and twelve fellows, ordering that the provost should be chosen out of the fellows and be in holy orders; and that, for the future, the fellows should be elected out of the counties of Cumberland and Westmorland. The principal benefactors, besides the founder, were Edward III. and his queen Philippa; Charles I. who gave this college three rectories and three vicarages in Hampshire; Sir Joseph Williamson, knight, some time fellow, who re-built part of the college, and left 6000*l.* towards the finishing of it, besides a valuable library of books; Dr. Barlow, bishop of Lincoln, Dr. William Lancaster, and Dr. Timothy Halton, provosts. Some valuable exhibitions have been since founded by Lady Margaret Hungerford, Sir Francis Bridgman, Mr. Tylney, Lady Elizabeth Hastings, and Dr. Holmes. Eight fellowships, four scholarships, and four exhibitions have been established by the late Mr. Mitchell of Richmond; and this institution is called the New Foundation in Queen's College. Several very liberal donations were received by the society in 1779, for the purpose of re-building the west wing of the front quadrangle, which had been destroyed by fire; and in particular the sum of 1000*l.* from her present Majesty, patroness of the college.

Queen's College is situate on the north side of the High-street, opposite University College. The whole area, on which it is built, is an oblong square of 300 feet in length, and 220 in breadth, which, being divided by the hall and chapel, forms two spacious courts.

The *Chapel* is 100 feet long, and 30 broad. In the arched roof is a piece of painting by Sir James Thornhill. The windows are admirably painted.

The

The *Hall* is 60 feet long, and 30 broad, with an arched roof of a suitable height.

The *Library* on the west side of the north court, about 123 feet in length, is a noble building of the Corinthian order, with a spacious cloister to the east. It has a splendid orrery, and is furnished with a valuable collection of books and manuscripts in most languages and sciences. It is also ornamented with a cast, in plaister of Paris, of the Florentine boar.

The *Members* in this college are, a provost, sixteen fellows, two chaplains, eight taberdas, (so called from *taberda*, a short gown which they formerly wore), sixteen scholars, two clerks, and forty exhibitioners; together with Mr. Michell's establishment, and a great number of masters, bachelors, gentlemen commoners, commoners, and other students. They have some extraordinary customs. They are called to dinner by the sound of a trumpet. On Christmas-day a boar's head is ushered very solemnly into the common-hall or refectory, with a celebrated monkish song; and, on New-year's day, the bursar of the college gives to each member a needle and thread, addressing him in these terms, *take this and be thrifty*. This practice of distributing the needle and thread, *aiguille et fil*, had perhaps, in its origin, some allusion to the name of the founder, Egglesfield.

Visitor. The archbishop of York.

NEW COLLEGE. New College was founded by William of Wykeham, a native of Wykeham in Hampshire, who besides many temporal honours, attained to the ecclesiastical dignity of bishop of Winchester. The foundation stone was laid March 5th, 1379, and it was finished on April 14, 1386, when the warden and fellows took possession of it. In the year following, St. Mary's College near Winchester was begun, and was finished and inhabited in the year 1393, by a warden, ten fellows, three chaplains, three clerks, and sixteen choristers, as also two masters, and seventy boys, from whom an annual election is held, to supply the immediate vacancies, or any which may happen within the ensuing year, at New College. The pious and munificent founder, not only saw both his colleges completed, made ample provision for the support of each, and gave them a regular and perfect body of statutes, but having survived many years, he enlarged his will with costly legacies of jewels, plate, money, and books, to be distributed throughout the several dioceses in which he was preferred, or had temporal possessions at his decease. He died Sept. 27, 1404, when he was 80 years of age. Wykeham's pious example has incited many eminent persons, chiefly such as had been fellows of this society, to be considerable benefactors to his munificent foundation.

New College is situated east of the schools and the theatre, and and is separated from Queen's College only by a narrow lane. It is dedicated to St. Mary Winton, and has been called New College from its first foundation, being at that time highly regarded for its extent and grandeur. The entrance is by a portal, leading into the first court, which is a quadrangle of about 168 feet long, and 129 broad. This court, as built at the foundation of the college, was low, with narrow arched transom windows, in the fashion of the times ; but soon after the restoration, another story was added over the old building, and the windows altered to their present form.

The *Chapel* is by much the grandest in the University. The ante-chapel is supported by two beautiful staff moulded pillars. This part is upwards of 80 feet long, and 36 broad. The painted windows in the ante-chapel are extremely superb, and justly considered as masterly productions. The choir is 100 feet long, 35 broad, and 65 high. The altar piece in the inner chapel is also much admired, and there are many other excellent pictures. Cathedral service is performed twice every day, at eight and six, and the university sermon is preached here on Lady-day and Trinity Sunday. Adjoining to the chapel are the cloisters, which inclose an area of an hundred and thirty feet in length, and eighty-five in breadth, and which are well worth the attention of the antiquary. On the north side of the cloisters is a tower with a peal of ten bells.

The *Hall* is at the north east corner of the quadrangle. It is handsomely wainscotted, and adorned with the portraits of the founder, and several other persons, and a beautiful Adoration of the Shepherds by Anibal Caracci.

The *Library*, situated on the east side of the quadrangle, consists of two elegant rooms, one over the other, 70 feet long, and 22 broad ; both of them well furnished with books, and containing some valuable manuscripts.

The *Garden* is well laid out, and includes a bowling green and pavilion.

The *Members* of New College are, the warden, seventy fellows, ten chaplains, three clerks, one sexton, sixteen choristers ; together with several gentlemen commoners.

Visitor. The bishop of Winchester.

LINCOLN COLLEGE. This college was first founded by Richard Flemming, who was born of a good family in Yorkshire, made bishop of Lincoln by Henry V., and died in 1431. He obtained the charter of incorporation in the sixth year of Henry VI. ; and in 1429 established a college, consisting of a rector and seven fellows, to whom he appropriated stipends. In 1478, Thomas Scott, alias Rotherham, then bishop of Lincoln, considering the imperfect

imperfect state of this foundation, obtained a new charter of Edward IV. by virtue whereof he added five other fellowships to the seven before founded, annexed to the college two rectories, and gave them a body of statutes, in which he limits the choice of the fellows to the dioceses of Lincoln and York, all except one, whom he would have to be of the diocese of Wells. But a greater benefactor was the Right Honourable Nathaniel Lord Crewe, bishop of Durham, who being present in the year 1717, after contributing liberally to the buildings which were then carrying on at Christ Church, Queen's, Worcester, and All Souls Colleges, and to the finishing of All Saints Church, settled by way of rent-charge, free from all deductions whatsoever, issuing out of his manors in Northumberland and Durham, twelve exhibitions of 20*l.* per annum each, for commoners of this college, whom he would have to be the sons of gentlemen; and made considerable augmentation to the annual stipends of the rector, fellows, scholars, bible clerk, and the chaplains of the four appropriated churches. The last benefactor was the late Dr. Hutchins, who had been many years rector, and who augmented the incomes of the scholars and exhibitioners.

Lincoln College is situated between All Saints Church and Exeter College; and consists of two courts.

The *Hall* is a handsome edifice, about forty feet long, 25 broad, and of a proportionable height.

The *Library* is a very neat room in the north side of the outer court, over the common room. It has been new fitted up, shaven, and wainscotted, at the expence of Sir Nathaniel Lloyd, Knt. sometime commoner of this College, and afterwards fellow of All Souls. It is well furnished with books, and there are in it some ancient and valuable manuscripts.

The *Chapel* is situated on the south side of the inner court. It has a screen of cedar, finely carved, which is mentioned by Dr. Plott as a great curiosity. The windows are entirely of painted glass, of which there is a large one over the altar, and four smaller on each side. In those of the south side are the figures of the twelve apostles, three in each window, as large as life. Over against these, are the figures of twelve of the prophets. The east window, which is over the altar, contains the types and antitypes of our Saviour. The ceiling, which is of cedar, is embellished with the arms of the founders and the principal benefactors; intermixed with cherubim, palm branches, festoons, &c. beautifully painted and gilt. The chapel was built in 1630, by Dr. John Williams, at that time bishop of Lincoln, and afterwards archbishop of York.

The *Members* are, a rector, twelve fellows, and twelve exhibitioners.

Visitor.

Visitor. The bishop of Lincoln.

ALL SOULS COLLEGE. The founder of this college was Dr. Henry Chicheley, a native of Higham Ferrers in Northamptonshire; who was arch-deacon of Sarum, and afterwards chancellor of the same church; employed by Henry IV. on several embassies and advanced first to the bishoprick of St. David's, and afterwards to the see of Canterbury. He laid the foundation of All Souls College in 1437: the charter of incorporation is dated May 20, 16 Henry VI. By the statutes he gave this college, he appointed forty fellows, whereof twenty four were directed to study divinity and philosophy, and the other sixteen the civil and the canon law. He procured from Henry VI. a grant of the lands and revenues of several dissolved priories to endow his college, and in his lifetime erected the chapel and all the rest of the original buildings, which cost him 4545*l.* and at his death gave to the society the annual sums of 134*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* and 100 marks. The most considerable benefactors have been, Colonel Christopher Codrington, governor of the Leeward Islands, and fellow of All Souls; George Clarke, LL.D.; the duke of Wharton, Doddington Greville, Esq. Lieutenant General Stewart, and Sir Nathaniel Lloyd, who, at the time he was fellow of this college, was head of a college at Cambridge. Colonel Codrington bequeathed 6000*l.* for building the library, his own valuable collection of books, and 4000*l.* more to purchase new ones; and Dr. Clarke gave his beautiful house for the use of the wardens successively of the college. He also much augmented the chaplainships.

All Soul's College consists chiefly of two courts. The old court, which is about 124 feet in length, and 72 in breadth, having the High-street on the south, and the chapel at the north end of it. In this old quadrangle is a dial, contrived by Sir Christopher Wren, then fellow of the college, which by the help of two half rays, and one whole one for every hour, shews to a minute what is the time, the minutes being marked on the sides of the rays, fifteen on each side, and divided in five by a different character. The grand court, situated behind the former, is a spacious and beautiful quadrangle, in length from north to south about 172 feet, and in breadth 155.

The *Chapel* is 70 feet long and 30 broad; the ante-chapel of the same dimensions: they are ornamented with valuable sculptures and pictures.

The new *Library* is a magnificent gallery, 200 feet long, and 30 broad, and about 40 feet high, finished at a great expence. The outside is Gothic, in conformity with the rest of the quadrangle. The inside consists of two grand ranges of book-cases, one above the other, supported by pilasters of the Doric and Ionic orders.

orders. Over the book-cases are placed interchangeably vases, and busts of many eminent persons, formerly fellows of the society.

The *Hall* is an elegant room, in which are many portraits and some busts and statues. The college buttery, which was built with the hall, is divided by a passage; it is of an oval form, with an arched stone roof of very curious work.

The *Members* of this college are, a warden, forty-fellows, two chaplains, and six clerks and choristers.

A peculiar custom is the celebrating the mallard night, every year on the 14th of January, in remembrance of an excessive large mallard or drake, supposed to have long ranged in a drain or sewer, where it was found at the digging for the foundation of the college. An authentic account of this event has been retrieved, and published from a manuscript of Thomas Walsingham, the historian, and monk of St. Alban's. It is the cause of much mirth, for on the day, and in remembrance of the mallard, is always sung a merry old song set to ancient music.

Visitor. The archbishop of Canterbury.

MAGDALEN COLLEGE. This college was founded by William Patten, called William of Waynflete from a village of that name in Lincolnshire, where he was born. He was elected master of Winchester school, afterward preferred to be provost of Eton college by Henry VI. who advanced him to the bishoprick of Winchester in 1447, and in 1449, he was constituted Lord High Chancellor of England. In 1456, he obtained leave of Henry VI. to convert St. John's hospital into a college.

Magdalen College is situated near the river Cherwell, at the east end of the city.

The *Chapel* is in all respects worthy of attention; the entrance is adorned with several statues; the roof is most elegantly designed; the windows are very finely painted; the altar piece has many admirers; and the altar is considered as an admirable specimen of design and workmanship. Cathedral service is performed here every day at ten, and between three and four, except Sundays and holidays, when the morning prayers begin at eight, on account of the university sermon.

On the right from the chapel is the *Cloister*, which remains in its primitive state; the whole making a most venerable appearance. The interior part is ornamented with hieroglyphics, which a celebrated antiquary has termed *whimsical figures which serve to amuse the vulgar, but are only the licentious inventions of the mason*, but of which the following rational account is translated from a Latin manuscript in the library of the college.

“ Beginning from the south-west corner, the two first figures
 “ we meet with are the *lion* and the *pelican*. The former of
 “ these is the emblem of *courage* and *vigilance*; the latter of
 “ parental

“ *parental tenderness* and *affection*. Both of them together ex-
 “ press to us the complete character of a good governor of a
 “ college. Accordingly they are placed under the window of
 “ those lodgings which originally belonged to the president, as
 “ the instructions they convey ought particularly to regulate
 “ his conduct.

“ Going on to the right hand, on the other side of the gate-
 “ way, are four figures, *viz.* the *schoolmaster*, the *lawyer*, the
 “ *physician*, and the *divine*. These are ranged along the out-
 “ side of the library, and represent the duties and business of
 “ the students of the house. By means of learning in general,
 “ they are to be introduced to one of the three learned profes-
 “ sions ; or else, as hinted to us by the figure with *cap* and *bells*
 “ in the corner, they must turn out *fools* in the end.

“ We come now to the north side of the quadrangle ; and
 “ here the three first figures represent the history of *David*, his
 “ conquest over the *lion* and *Goliath* ; from whence we are taught
 “ not to be discouraged at any difficulties that may stand in
 “ our way, as the *vigour of youth* will easily enable us to sur-
 “ mount them. The next figure to these is that of the
 “ *hippopotamus*, or *river horse*, carrying his young one upon
 “ his shoulders. This is the emblem of a good tutor, or fellow-
 “ of a college, who is set to watch over the youth of the society,
 “ and by whose prudence they are to be led through the dangers
 “ of their first entrance into the world. The figure immediate-
 “ ly following represents *sobriety* or *temperance*, that most ne-
 “ cessary virtue of a collegiate life. The whole remaining
 “ train of figures are the vices we are instructed to avoid. Those
 “ next to temperance, are the opposite vices of *gluttony* and
 “ *drunkenness*. Then follow the *lucanthropos*, the *hyena*, and
 “ *panther*, representing *violence*, *fraud*, and *treachery* ; the *griffin*,
 “ representing *covetousness*, and the next figure, *anger*, or *morose-*
 “ *ness*. The *dog*, the *dragon*, the *deer*, *flattery*, *envy*, and *timidity* ;
 “ and the three last, the *mantichora*, the *boxers*, and the *lamia*,
 “ *pride*, *contention*, and *lust* ;

“ We have here therefore, a complete and instructive lesson for
 “ the use of a society dedicated to the advancement of religion
 “ and learning ; and, on this plan, we may suppose the founder
 “ of *Magdalen* thus speaking, by means of these figures, to the
 “ students of his college:

“ It is your duty, who live under the care of a president
 “ whose *vigilance* and *parental tenderness* are the proper qualifica-
 “ tions to support the government of my house, attentively to
 “ pursue your studies in your *several professions* ; and so avoid
 “ the follies of an idle, unlettered, and dissipated course of life.
 “ You may possibly meet with many *difficulties* at your setting
 “ out

“ out in this road ; but these every *stripling* will be able to over-
 “ come by *courage* and *perseverance*. And remember when
 “ you are advanced beyond these difficulties, that it is your
 “ duty to lend your assistance to those who come after you, and
 “ whose education is committed to your care. You are to be
 “ an example to them of *sobriety* and *temperance*, so shall you
 “ guard them from falling into the snares of *excess* and *debauchery*.
 “ You shall teach them, that the vices with which the world
 “ abounds, *cruelty*, *fraud*, *avarice*, *anger*, and *envy*, as well as the
 “ more supple ones of abject *flattery* and *cowardice*, are not to be
 “ countenanced within these hallowed retirements. And let it
 “ be your endeavour to avoid *pride* and *contention*, the parents
 “ of *faction*, and in your situation, the worst and most unna-
 “ tural of all factions, the *faction of a cloister*. And, lastly, you
 “ will complete the *collegiate character*, if you crown all your
 “ other acquirements with the unspotted *purity* and *chastity* of
 “ your lives and conversation.”

An unparalleled beauty belonging to this college is *the grove*, which seems perfectly adapted to indulge contemplation ; being a pleasant kind of solitude, well planted with trees. It has in it about forty head of deer. Besides the walks which are in the grove, there is a very delightful and much frequented one round a meadow surrounded by branches of the Cherwell, called the Water Walk, which yields a great variety, some parts of it running in straight lines with the trees regularly cut ; others winding, and the trees growing little otherwise than as nature directs. On the west side a beautiful opening is made into the grove, by removing the embattled wall in that part.

The *Tower*, which is so conspicuous from every part of the neighbourhood, and elegant in its structure, was built sometime after the foundation of the college, and has been supposed to have been erected under the inspection of cardinal Wolsey, who was a member of this society : but this presumption rests only on tradition. It was begun in 1492, and completed some years after. It contains a very musical peal of ten bells.

The *Members* of this college are, a president, forty fellows, thirty demies, a divinity lecturer, schoolmaster, and usher, four chaplains, an organist, eight clerks, and sixteen choristers.

Visitor. The bishop of Winchester.

BRAZEN NOSE COLLEGE. The most probable account of the uncommon name of this college seems to be as follows. The founders purchased from University College, for the site of their intended building, two ancient seats of learning, Brazen-nose and Little University Halls ; the former of which, as well as one of the same name at Stamford, received its title from the circumstance of having a nose of brass affixed to the gate.

It

It was with a view to this that the founders ordered their new seminary to be called the King's Hall and College of Brazen-nose; and a similar appendage is still conspicuous over the portal.

This college forms the west side of the Radcliffe Square, It was founded in 1509, by the joint benefaction of William Smith, bishop of Lincoln, and Sir Richard Sutton, knight, of Presbury in Cheshire.

The *Refectory* is handsome and spacious, and adorned with some good portraits and paintings on glass of the two founders. It stands on the south side of the first quadrangle; in the centre of which is a statue of Cain and Abel.

The *Library* and *Chapel* are not distinguished by any thing very remarkable.

The foundation of this college is for a principal, twenty fellows, thirty-two scholars, and twelve exhibitioners.

Visitor. The bishop of Lincoln.

CORPUS CHRISTI COLLEGE. This College was founded in 1516, by Dr. Richard Fox, a native of Ropesley, near Grantham in Lincolnshire, who was successively bishop of the sees of Exeter, Bath and Wells, Durham, and Winchester, and was likewise Lord Privy Seal to Henry VII. and Henry VIII. He first intended it only as a seminary for the monks of the priory or cathedral church of St. Swithin at Winchester, and obtained a charter for that end; but altered his mind by the persuasion of Hugh Oldham, bishop of Exeter, who engaged to be a benefactor to the house, on condition that he would convert it into a college for the use of secular students, after the manner of other colleges in the university. Whereupon bishop Fox caused the first charter to be cancelled, and obtained another, whereby he was permitted to found a college, for the study of divinity, philosophy, and other liberal arts. The statutes for the government of this society ordain, that the fellows should be elected out of the scholars, who are to be chosen from the counties or dioceses following, viz. two, Surry; three, Hampshire; one, Durham; two, Bath and Wells; two, Exeter; two county of Lincoln; two, Gloucestershire; one, Wiltshire; (or in defect of candidate) the diocese of Sarum; one, county of Bedford; two, county of Kent; one, county of Oxford; one, Lancashire. Among the benefactors was Hugh Oldham, chaplain to Margaret countess of Richmond, and afterward bishop of Exeter, who gave 6000 marks towards erecting the college, besides several estates for the endowment of it. William Frost, steward to the founder; John Claymond, the first president of this college; and Robert Morwent, second president, gave to the college several portions of lands. Arthur Parsons, M. D. sometime fellow, gave 3000*l.* towards purchasing advowsons.

Corpus

Corpus Christi College stands between Christ Church on the west, Merton College on the east, and Oriel College on the north. It consists of one quadrangle, built in the founder's time, but not embattled within till about the latter end of the reign of James I. In length it is 101 feet by 80 wide. Towards Christ Church walk, an elegant modern building, 119 feet in front, with an arcade adjoining, was erected in 1706, at the sole expence of Dr. Turner, president. On the east side toward Merton Grove, a handsome structure was built in 1737, for the residence of gentlemen commoners, whose number the founder has confined to six. And soon after the north and west fronts of the first court were rebuilt, chiefly at the expence of some members of the society.

By similar means *the Hall* was embellished with a handsome oak wainscot in 1700: it is 50 feet long, and twenty-five broad, and of a proportionable height, with beautiful Gothic rafters.

The Chapel is 70 feet in length, and 25 in breadth. In 1676, it was adorned with a floor of black and white marble, new stalls, a screen of cedar wood, and a roof wainscotted and gilt.

The Library is well furnished with books, particularly a large collection of tracts from the Reformation to the revolution; about 300 MSS. a curious one of Suidas, which seems to have once belonged to William Grocyn, that celebrated scholar and teacher of the Greek language in this university, toward the close of the 15th century, as his name is written on the cover of both volumes; the MS. collections of the antiquaries Bryan, Twine, and Fulman; an English bible supposed to be older than Wickliffe's; a parchment roll containing the pedigree of the royal family, and the several branches of it, from Alfred to Edward VI. with their arms blazoned, signed by the king at arms; and several other curiosities, particularly an ancient MS. history of the bible in French, finely decorated with curious painting, given by general Oglethorpe, who was a member of this college; and also a very valuable collection of the earliest editions of the classics, particularly of the Aldine, many of which belonged to the founder, and are well preserved. Among the most curious are Cicero de Officiis, on vellum, 1466; the Florentine Anthologia, Euripides, Appollonius Rhodius in capital letters; and a vellum copy of the splendid edition of Aristotle and Theophrastus, from the press of Aldus. They shew here also the genuine crozier of the founder, a piece of curious workmanship little impaired by time.

The Members are, a president, twenty fellows, two chaplains,
2
twenty

twenty scholars, four exhibitioners, and six gentlemen commoners.

Visitor. The bishop of Winchester.

CHRIST CHURCH. This college was founded by cardinal Wolsey, upon the place where formerly stood the priory of St. Frideswide, which, and several other religious foundations, were dissolved, in order to endow the college intended by the cardinal. The design was far from being completed at the time of Wolsey's disgrace, little more being built than the east, south, and part of the west sides of the great quadrangle, and the kitchen. And as to the foundation itself, whatever it might be at that time, it is certain it was afterwards lessened, and the form of it altered two or three times by the king. The disgrace of the cardinal happened in 1529, when the king seized upon this college, as well as his other estates. In 1532, at the instance of lord Cromwell, the king new modelled the foundation, and gave it the name of *King Henry the Eighth's College*. This was suppressed in 1545, and in the year following the episcopal see was removed from Oseney to this college, and the church of St. Frideswide constituted a cathedral, by the name of Christchurch. Since the time of Elizabeth, this college has largely experienced the bounty of several benefactors, particularly bishop Fell, who left ten exhibitions of 10*l.* per ann. to commoners, to be held for ten years from the time they were nominated to them. The 101st studentship was added by William Thurston, Esq. 1663. Several exhibitions were given by lady Holford, for scholars educated at the Charter-house, and more by other benefactors.

The college consists of four courts or squares, *viz.* 1. The Great Quadrangle; 2. Peckwater-square; 3. Canterbury-court; 4. The Chaplain's-court; and some other buildings.

The stately west front of the great quadrangle is a magnificent Gothic building, 382 feet in length, terminated at each end with two corresponding turrets. The great gate is in the middle of this front, and over it a beautiful tower enriched with Gothic ornaments, designed by Sir Christopher Wren, erected by Dr. Fell, and perfectly corresponding to the rest of the buildings. In this tower hangs the great bell called *Tom* (the weight of which is eight tons and a half), on the sound of which the scholars of the university are to retire to their respective colleges. The great quadrangle is 264, by 261 feet in the clear. The south-east and part of the west sides, with the magnificent *kitchen* to the south of the hall, were erected by the cardinal. The east and north sides of this quadrangle are taken up with the dean's and four of the canons' lodgings.

The

The *Hall* is by far the most magnificent room of the kind in Oxford, and one of the largest in the kingdom. The roof is framed of timber, curiously wrought, and so contrived as to produce a very grand and noble effect. There are near 300 compartments in the cornice, which are embellished with as many coats of arms carved and blazoned in their proper colours. At the upper end of the hall is an ascent of three steps, which run through the whole breadth; near which is a beautiful Gothic window in a recess. This superb room is beautified, and improved, by completing and painting the wainscoat and roof, and the addition of a great number of portraits of eminent persons, who were educated at the college.

The *Church* of this college, which is the cathedral of the diocese, is on the east of the grand quadrangle, a venerable structure, originally the church of Saint Frideswide's monastery. It was finished before the year 1200. The roof of the choir is a beautiful piece of stone-work, put up by Cardinal Wolsey, who also rebuilt the spire. In the tower are ten celebrated bells, brought from Osney abbey, as was the great bell called Tom. In this church, choir service is performed every day at ten and five; except on Sundays and holidays, when it is eight in the morning.

Three sides of Peckwater court are uniform, designed by Dr. Aldrich, then dean, as eminent for his skill in architecture as for his knowledge in most other branches. Each side contains fifteen windows in front. The lower story is rustic, in which are three entrances. The second story, and the attic above it, are contained in the height of the Ionic order, which rests upon the rustic. Over the five middle windows in each side is a beautiful pediment, which projects, supported by three quarter columns of the same order, as the entablature and balustrade of the other parts are by pilasters.

On the south side of this court is a magnificent *Library*, 141 feet long, built in the Corinthian order, the pillars of which are four feet in diameter. The wainscotting, book-cases, and stucco-work, as well on the stair-case as in the rooms of the library, are very highly finished, particularly the beautiful festoons in stucco, charged with symbolical imagery, severally representing the particular branch of literature contained beneath. There are many busts, and a collection of good pictures.

Canterbury court, once Canterbury college, is now most elegantly rebuilt, from a plan suitable to Peckwater, with a superb gate-way, under the direction of Mr. Wyatt, by the munificence of Dr. Robinson, late primate of Ireland, and other benefactors.

The chaplain's court is situated south-east of the grand quadrangle, on the north side whereof is a large building of new chambers, the walls of which are formed from the hall or refectory of St. Frideswide's priory.

The court of the grammar school is south of the great quadrangle, having the hall on the north side of it: under part of the hall is the spacious common room, in which is an excellent bust by Rysbrack, of Dr. Busby, formerly master of Westminster school, and a considerable benefactor to the college. Round the room are the pictures of the several masters of the same school, and other eminent members of the society.

On the south side is the new *Anatomical Theatre*, erected and endowed by the late Dr. Lee, physician to George II. at the expence of 20,000*l.*, with a proper stipend to the lecturer, &c. In it is a fine collection of anatomical preparations and injections.

The *Foundation* consists of a dean, eight canons, 101 students, part of which are elected annually from Westminster school; and the other vacancies, as they happen, are filled up by the dean and canons; eight chaplains, eight singing men, and as many choristers, a school-master, an organist, &c.

Visitor. The King.

TRINITY COLLEGE. This college was founded March 8, 1594, by Sir Thomas Pope, knight, of Tittlehanger in Hertfordshire, privy counsellor to Queen Mary, and a singular friend to Sir Thomas More, for the maintenance and education of a president, twelve fellows, and twelve scholars. The founder directs, that the scholars, who succeed to the fellowships, shall be chosen from his manors: but, if no candidates appear under such qualifications on the day of election, that they shall be supplied from any county in England. He also appoints, that no more than two natives of the same county shall be fellows of his college at the same time, Oxfordshire excepted, from which county five are admitted. The principal, and almost only benefactor, was Dr. Ralph Bathurst, formerly president, who expended 1900*l.* in rebuilding the chapel.

This college stands opposite the Turl. A spacious avenue, fenced from the street by a handsome iron palisade, with folding gates, leads to the front of the college, which consists of the chapel and the gateway, with its tower.

In the first court are the chapel, hall, president's lodgings, and library.

The great elegance of the *Chapel* results from an assemblage of highly finished ornaments. The carving of the screen and altar-piece, which are of cedar, is performed with exquisite taste, and the chapel in all parts is beautifully decorated.

The

The *Hall* is spacious and well proportioned, and adorned with a portrait of the founder. Over the chimney-piece are the arms of Queen Mary and King Philip, a rare instance of the arms of England and Spain being quartered together.

In the *Library* windows are several compartments of fine old painted glass, much injured in former times.

The second court, planned by Sir Christopher Wren, was one of the first pieces of modern architecture which appeared in the university. It consists of three sides. The opening to the gardens on the east has an agreeable effect.

The *Gardens* are extensive, and laid out in two divisions.

The *College* consists of a president, twelve fellows, and twelve scholars.

Visitor. The bishop of Winchester.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE. This college was founded by Sir Thomas White, alderman and merchant-tailor, of London, who afterwards, anno 1557, endowed it with several considerable manors, and at his death bequeathed the sum of 3000 *l.* to purchase lands to increase its revenues. He originally designed Merchant Tailors' School in London as the only seminary for this college; but being of a more public spirit than to confine himself to any one place, he allowed two fellowships to the city of Coventry, two to Bristol, two to the town of Reading, and one to Tunbridge, together with six to the kin of the founder. The most considerable benefactors since have been Sir William Paddy, who founded and endowed the choir, and built that side of the new quadrangle, of which the library is a part; Archbishop Laud, who at the expence of about 5000 *l.* (exclusive of 400 *l.* for the statues of the king and queen) added the other three sides; Archbishop Juxon, who gave 7000 *l.* to this college; Dr. Gibbons who bequeathed the perpetual advowson of the living of Baynton in Yorkshire, and 1000 *l.* to buy books; Dr. Holmes, formerly president, with his lady, who gave 15,000 *l.* to augment the salaries of the officers, and other uses; and Dr. Rawlinson, who bequeathed the reversion of an estate in fee farm rents.

St. John's College is situated north of Baliol and Trinity Colleges, having a terrace with a row of lofty elms before it. The buildings chiefly consist of two large quadrangles. The entrance to the first is by a handsome old gateway with a tower over it. It is formed by the hall and chapel on the north, the president's lodgings on the east, and the chambers of the fellows, scholars, and other students on the south and west sides.

The *Hall* is elegant, being well proportioned, and handsomely wainscotted, with a beautiful arched roof, a screen of Portland stone, and a grand variegated marble chimney-piece, containing

a picture of St. John the Baptist, by Guarini. It is likewise adorned with many other pictures.

The *Chapel*, which is adjoining to the hall, is in all respects neat and commodious. It is divided from the ante-chapel by a new and elegant screen, over which has been erected a very complete new organ. It has now an elegance which results from several high finished, yet simple ornaments. In particular the stand on which the Bible is placed is adorned with masterly carving. The altar is of the Corinthian order, and very properly adapted. Over the communion table is a fine piece of tapestry, representing our Saviour with the two disciples at Emmaus, copied from a painting of Titian. In this chapel cathedral service is performed twice a day, at eight and six. In the *Post-chapel*, the roof of which is of carved stone and very elegant, are three monuments of deceased presidents.

Through a passage on the east side of the first quadrangle is the entrance to the second; on the east and west sides whereof are handsome piazzas in the Grecian taste, each column consisting of one single bluish stone, dug from a part of the college estate, near Fifeild in Berkshire. In the centre of each piazza is a magnificent gateway, consisting principally of two orders. 1. The Doric, which forms the gateway itself, agreeable to that of the piazzas. 2. The Ionic, which supports a semicircular pediment. Between four of these columns, viz. two on each side, in a niche, is a brass statue; that on the east of Charles I. and that on the west of his Queen, cast by Fanelli of Florence. That neither of the Greek orders might be wanting, the third, viz. the Corinthian, is very artfully introduced in the construction of the niche. The whole is richly embellished, and is the design of Inigo Jones.

The *Library* includes the upper story of the south and east sides. The south side is well stored with printed books in all faculties, regularly disposed: the east with a most valuable collection of manuscripts, in which the bookcases adhering to the sides form a spacious gallery. Here are some valuable curiosities consisting in pictures and books.

The *Gardens* are very extensive, and laid out with all those graces which arise from a succession of beauties so disposed as to strike gradually and unexpectedly. The celebrated Mr. Browne, by removing a few embarrassing overgrown chesnut trees, has so changed the aspect of this garden, that few can at present vie with it.

The *Members* are, a president, fifty fellows, two chaplains, an organist, five singing-men, six choristers, and two sextons.

Visitor. The bishop of Winchester.

JESUS COLLEGE. This college was founded by Queen Elizabeth,

zabeth, by charter bearing date the 27th June 1571, for a principal, eight fellows, and eight scholars. The queen, at the request of Hugh Price, LL.D. a native of Brecknock, and treasurer of the church of St. David's, granted her royal charter of foundation, and a certain religious house, or cell, called Whitehall (which before the dissolution of monasteries belonged to the priory of St. Frideswide) for the site of the college, together with such timber and other materials as should be wanting for the building of it, out of her forests of Shotover and Stowe. The first endowment of this college was by Dr. Hugh Price, above mentioned, who, by deed bearing date the last day of the said month of June 1571, conveyed to the college, by the style and title of *The Principal, Fellows, and Scholars, of Jesus College, within the City and University of Oxford, of Queen Elizabeth's foundation*, certain lands, messuages and tenements in the county of Brecknock, in value about 160 *l. per ann.* for the maintenance and support of a principal, eight fellows, and eight scholars, being the number limited in the original charter of foundation; though by charters since granted at different times, and the munificence of subsequent benefactors, the number of fellows and scholars is more than doubled. The principal benefactors after Dr. Hugh Price, who may in some measure be called the founder of this originally little society, were, Sir Eubule Thelwal, knt. principal of the college, who, beside his contributions toward the buildings carried on under his direction, increased the number of fellows from eight to sixteen; Dr. Francis Mansel, who was thrice principal; Sir Leoline Jenkins; Charles I.; Dr. Griffith Lloyd, and many others.

In point of architecture, Jesus college contains nothing peculiarly deserving notice.

The *Society* is composed of a principal, nineteen fellows, and eighteen scholars, besides a considerable number of exhibitors.

Visitor. The earl of Pembroke.

WADHAM COLLEGE. This college was designed by Nicholas Wadham, esq., and built in pursuance of his will, by Dorothy, his widow, in 1613, who appointed a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen scholars, two chaplains, and two clerks; the warden to be a native of Great Britain. The fellows, after having completed eighteen years from their regency, to resign their fellowships. The scholars, out of whom the fellows are to be chosen, to be taken three out of Somersetshire, and three out of Essex; the rest out of any county of Great Britain. The most considerable benefactor, since the founder, was John Goodridge, M. A. some time fellow of this college, who gave all his estate at Walthamstow in Essex to the society. Dr.

Hody added ten exhibitions, four for students in Hebrew, and six for Greek, 10 *l.* a year each. Lord Wyndham 2000 *l.* of which 1,500 *l.* to increase the warden's salary, and 500 *l.* to beautify and repair the college. Bishop Lisle, the late warden, gave two exhibitions of 10 *l.* *per annum* each.

Wadham college is situated north of the public schools and printing house; its front facing the gardens of Trinity college. It consists chiefly of one large quadrangle, about 130 feet square.

The *Hall* is a spacious Gothic room, at the south-east angle of the great court; and the *Library* stands on the east of the hall.

The *Chapel* is a spacious edifice, at the north-east angle of the same court, and has that venerable appearance so remarkable in the chapels at New college, and Magdalen, having the antechapel at right angles with the choir. What is most admired here is a very large window at the east end, of the passion of our Saviour, by Van Ling, wherein is a great variety of figures admirably done. The windows on the sides seem to be of the same workmanship; but the greatest curiosity in this chapel is the painted cloth, if it may be so called, at the lower part of the altar. It is the only work of its kind at present in Oxford. The cloth, which is of an ash colour, is the medium; the lines and shades are done with a brown crayon, and the lights with a white one; which being afterwards pressed with hot irons, causing the damp of the cloth to incorporate with the colours, has so fixed them, as to be rendered proof against a brush when used to cleanse it from dust; it was performed by Isaac Fuller, who painted the altar piece at Magdalen college, and it is generally allowed to be a masterly drawing. The east represents the Lord's supper; the north, Abraham and Melchisedeck; and the south, the children of Israel gathering manna.

The *Members* are, the warden, fifteen fellows, two chaplains, fifteen scholars, two clerks, and sixteen exhibitioners.

Visitor. The bishop of Bath and Wells.

PEMBROKE COLLEGE. This college, formerly Broadgate Hall, was founded in 1620, by Thomas Tesdale of Glympton, esq., and Richard Whitwick, S. T. B. rector of Ilfley, Berks, for a master, ten fellows, and ten scholars; four of Mr. Tesdale's fellows to be chosen out of his relations, and the rest to come from Abingdon free-school. As to Mr. Whitwick's benefaction, two of the fellows and two scholars to be of his kindred, and the rest from Abingdon school. King Charles I. granted to this society the perpetual advowson of St. Aldate's church, and certain lands for the maintenance of one fellow, to be chosen from Guernsey or Jersey. Archbishop Abbot, Juliana Stafford, and Francis Rous,

Rous, were the next benefactors; and Dr. George Morley, bishop of Winchester, founded five scholarships for the natives of Guernsey and Jersey. Queen Anne annexed a prebend of Gloucester to the mastership; Lady Holford gave two exhibitions of 20 *l.* a-year each; Dr. Hall, master of this college, and bishop of Bristol, built the master's lodgings; Sir John Bennet, Lord Ossulston, endowed two fellowships and scholarships; Mr. Townshend gave eight exhibitions to young scholars from Gloucestershire; and Sir John Philips, Bart. in 1749, founded one fellowship and one scholarship.

The name of the college was derived from the Earl of Pembroke, chancellor of the university at the time it was founded; it is situated near Saint Aldate's Church, in a direct line from the grand gate of Christ Church, and consists of two small courts. The quadrangle is uniform, having the *hall* at the north-west angle, in which are pictures of the founders and some benefactors. The *chapel* is a small elegant building, of the Ionic order, with a beautiful altar-piece. In the *garden*, which is west of the chapel, is a pleasant common room and a terrace walk.

The *members* are, a master, fourteen fellows, thirty scholars, and exhibitioners.

Visitor. The chancellor of the university.

WORCESTER COLLEGE. This house was formerly called Gloucester College, being a seminary for educating the novices of Gloucester monastery. It was founded in 1283 by John Giffard, baron of Brimsfield. When suppressed at the reformation, it was converted into a palace for the bishop of Oxford, but was soon after erected into an academical hall, by Sir Thomas White, the founder of Saint John's college; in which state it continued till it received a charter of incorporation and endowment from Sir Thomas Cookes, who, in 1714, obtained a foundation for a provost, six fellows, and six scholars. Dr. Finney further endowed it with two fellowships and two scholarships for students from Staffordshire. Dr. Clarke founded six fellowships and three scholarships, with a preference to clergymen's sons; and Mrs. Eton, daughter to Dr. Eton, principal of Gloucester hall, founded six fellowships. Lady Holford gave two exhibitions of 20 *l.* a-year each, for Charter-house scholars, to be enjoyed eight years.

Worcester college is pleasantly situated on an eminence just above the river Isis and the meadows, at the extremity of the western suburb. At entering the college are the *chapel* and *hall* one on each side, both of which are twenty-nine feet in breadth, and fifty in length. The *library*, which is a magnificent Ionic edifice, on the west of the chapel and hall, is 100 feet in length,

supported by a spacious cloister. It is furnished with a valuable collection of books, chiefly the library of Dr. Clarke, late fellow of All Souls' College; in which is Inigo Jones's Palladio, with his own manuscript notes.

The *Members* are, a provost, twenty fellows, and seventeen scholars.

Visitor. The chancellor of the university.

HERTFORD COLLEGE. Hertford, or Hart Hall, an ancient house of learning, was an appendant to Exeter College; but, having received an endowment in part, was, at the request of Dr. Richard Newton, then principal, who endowed the senior fellowships incorporated, September 8, 1740.

It is situated opposite to the gate of the public schools, and consists of one court, but it is yet unfinished.

It contains a principal, two senior fellows or tutors, junior fellows or assistants, under-graduate students, and four scholars.

Visitor. The chancellor of the university.

HALLS. The halls are five in number, and belong to colleges; viz. Saint Edmund's hall to Queen's college; Magdalen hall to the college of the same name; Saint Alban's hall to Merton college; Saint Mary's to Oriel; and New Inn to New College. They are under the government of their respective principals, whose incomes arise from the rent of the chambers. The students take an oath to obey the statutes and customs of the hall, which statutes are made and altered by the chancellor, who has the nomination of the principals, and is visitor of all the halls, except that of Saint Edmund, which is dependent on Queen's college, and the principal appointed by that society.

OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS. Beside the colleges and halls, there are at Oxford several other establishments connected with the university, which demand attention. These are, 1st, *The theatre*, which was built at the expence of archbishop Sheldon, chancellor of the university, 1668, who gave 2000 *l.* to purchase lands for its repairs. It is extremely magnificent, of the form of the Roman theatre, not circular, having one flat side, and the roof, eighty feet by seventy, rests on the walls without pillars. 2d, *Ashmole's museum*, the lower part of which is an elaboratory, and the upper story a repository of natural and artificial rarities, principally given by Elias Ashmole, who lodged here the collection of MSS. made by his father-in-law, Sir William Dugdale, Anthony Wood, Sir Henry Savile, and himself. 3d, *The printing-house*, built in the year 1712, with the profits of the sale of Lord Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, the perpetual impression of which he gave to the university. Round the wall that formerly enclosed the theatre, stood the *Arundelian marbles*, now removed into the schools. These valuable monuments,

ments, collected in Greece and Asia, by Thomas Earl of Arundel, and Sir William Petty, were given by the said Earl; others by Mr. Selden, Sir George Wheler, Dr. Shaw, Messrs. Dawkins and Wood, and Dr. Rawlinson. To this collection, in the year 1755, were added, by the gift of the countess of Pomfret, above 100 statues, busts, &c. purchased by her late husband's father lord Sempster, out of the Arundelian collection. The whole collection now at Oxford consists of 167 marbles, that is, statues, busts, bas-reliefs, and fragments of sculpture; 100 inscriptions, Greek, Egyptian, Citean, and Palmyrene; and 145 Roman and others. 4th, *The public schools*, which form a magnificent quadrangle, part of which is appropriated for the reception of the Bodleian library. 5th, *The Radcliffe library*, founded by the will of Dr. Radcliffe, and finished in the year 1769. 6th, A stupendous *astronomical observatory*, which has lately been erected at the north-west corner of the city, at the expence nearly of 30,000 *l.*, begun in the year 1771, by the trustees of Dr. Radcliffe's estate. 7th, *The physic garden*, founded by Henry Danvers, earl of Danby, in 1632, and endowed with an annual revenue. Dr. Sherrard built the present library, furnished the garden with most of its curious plants, and, at the expence of 3000 *l.* endowed the professorship. Last may be mentioned the collection called the *University*, or *Bodleian library*, which, as already has been said, is placed in the public schools. This vast accumulation of literary treasure was begun in 1440 by Humphrey, commonly called the *good*, duke of Gloucester, who furnished it with many choice volumes procured from Italy, besides considerable additions bequeathed at his death three years after. In 1597, Sir Thomas Bodley repaired the old library of Humphrey duke of Gloucester, and in 1599 fitted it for the reception of books. An additional eastern gallery was begun by him in the year 1610, and another gallery on the west, projected by him, was erected afterwards. He furnished the library with a numerous collection of books, procured with much care and expence, from all parts of the world. He died January 28, 1612, leaving an estate for the maintenance of a librarian, &c. as well as for the necessary repairs of the library; he added also a body of statutes for the regulation of his new institution, which were afterwards confirmed in convocation. Many large and valuable collections of Greek and oriental manuscripts, as well as choice and useful books, have been added to this library by later benefactors; particularly the earl of Pembroke, archbishop Laud, (to whom it is indebted for its inestimable oriental manuscripts,) Sir Thomas Roe, Sir Kenelm Digby, General Fairfax, Dr. Marshall, Dr. Barlow, Dr. Rawlinson, Mr.

Mr. St. Amand, and Mr. Godwyn : considerable purchases are likewise annually made at the expence of the university.

DEGREES. The degrees denote a quality conferred on the students or members, as a testimony of their proficiency in the arts or faculties, and entitling them to certain privileges and precedencies. The degrees are, *bachelor*, *master*, and *doctor*; instead of which last, in some foreign universities, they have *licentiate*. In each faculty there are but two degrees, viz. *bachelor* and *master*.

BACHELORS. The degree of Bachelor was first introduced in the thirteenth century, by Pope Gregory IX., but remains still unknown in Italy. At Oxford, before a person can be entitled to the degree of bachelor of arts, he must have studied there four years three years more to become master of arts; and seven more to commence bachelor of divinity. This degree is only conferred in Lent.

DOCTORS. The title of Doctor was first created towards the middle of the twelfth century, to succeed to that of master, which was become too common and familiar. To pass doctor in divinity at Oxford, it is necessary for the candidate to have been four years bachelor of divinity. For doctor of laws, he must have been seven years in the university to commence bachelor of law; five years after which he may be admitted doctor. Otherwise, in three years after taking the degree of master of arts, he may take the degree of bachelor in law, and in four years more, that of LL.D. which same method and time are likewise required to pass the degree of doctor in physic. At Oxford, degrees of master and doctor are only conferred once a-year, viz. the Monday after the 7th of July; when a solemn act is held for the purpose.

ACTS. An act is a thesis maintained in public by a candidate for a degree; or, to shew the capacity and proficiency of a student in the university. The candidates for a degree of bachelor and master of arts, are to hold philosophy acts; those for bachelor of divinity, are to keep divinity acts, &c. At Oxford, the time when the masters or doctors complete their degrees, is also called the *Act*; which is held with great solemnity: at Cambridge they call it the *Commencement*. *Act* is also a collegiate appellation for the person who proposes questions that are the subject of disputation in the exercises of the university schools. The persons with whom he contends in these questions are called *opponents*: and the discussion is prosecuted under the direction of the *moderator*. The distinguished men of the year appear eight times in this manner in the schools; twice as *acts*, and six times as *opponents*. One *act* and three *opponents* are kept before the summer; and one *act* and three *opponents* in the term following the summer vacation.

TERMS.

TERMS. The terms are periods of the year in which progress can be made toward the attainment of degrees; in contradistinction from which, the rest of the year is called *vacation*. In the university of Oxford, the terms are four; *Hilary* or *Lent* term, which begins January 14th, and ends the Saturday before Palm Sunday. *Easter*-term, which begins the 10th day after Easter, and ends the Thursday before Whitsunday. *Trinity*, or *act* term, which begins the Wednesday after Trinity Sunday, and ends after the act or 6th of July, sooner or later as the vice-chancellor and convocation please; and Michaelmas term, which begins October the 10th and ends December the 17th.

CAMBRIDGE. The original foundation of this seminary is involved in fabulous obscurity, and the stories which have been propagated on the subject, confute themselves by their own absurdity. These excessive statements have arisen from the rival claims of the two universities; partial antiquaries espousing the side of each. Some have affirmed that this university was first founded by Cantaber, a Spaniard, bred at Athens, 375 years before the commencement of the Christian era, from whom also it received its name. Others, certainly with a greater share of probability, ascribe its foundation to Sigebert, king of the East Angles, about the year 630; but between the time of these two foundations, many marvellous anecdotes are recorded; which, with sober antiquaries, are not entitled to the smallest credit. Cassivellaun, the British prince of the Trinobantes, is represented as its patron; Joseph of Arimathea, as its apostle; and Arthur, the early pride of Britain, as one who had endowed it with superior privileges.

That it was ruined in the Danish invasion, and lay long neglected, is pretty clear; as well as that it did not thoroughly recover itself, till the Norman government was established.

The first charter of privileges to the university, is said to remain among the records in the Tower, dated 1231, the fifteenth year of Henry III.; and, perhaps, one great reason why the notices of its earliest history are so few and indistinct, is, that although houses of learning, and inns and halls for scholars, were founded, they were without endowments. Before the establishment of the present sixteen colleges and halls, Cambridge had upwards of thirty inns, or hostels, where students lived and studied at their own charge, and under a principal. Pythagoras's school, in a garden adjoining St. John's-college-walks, is falsely supposed to have been one of these, where the Croyland monks read lectures; but is really the infirmary of St. John's Hospital. Edward IV. took it from King's College, Cambridge, and

and gave it to Merton College, Oxford; whose property it has ever since been, and is sometimes called Merton Hall.

The first college that received endowment was Peter-house; it was built in 1257, by Hugh de Balsam, bishop of Ely, who did not endow it till 1284; in imitation of whom, Richard Badew, assisted by Elizabeth Clare, countess of Ulster, 1340, founded Clare Hall; and other endowments succeeded.

The scholars were at first kept in private houses, hired every ten years, for the sole use of the university, assisted by benefactions.

The university, as composed of a chancellor, the masters, or heads, and fellows of the college, and the students, is incorporated as a society, for the study of all the liberal arts and sciences. Each college or hall is a body of itself, not only bound by internal regulations, but also controlled by the paramount law of the university: each furnishes members for the government of the whole.

OFFICERS. The Officers are as follow.

CHANCELLOR. The Chancellor is usually a nobleman, and may be changed every three years; or continued longer by the tacit consent of the university.

HIGH STEWARD. The High Steward is chosen by the senate, and holds his office by patent from the university.

VICE CHANCELLOR. The Vice Chancellor's is an annual office. He is chosen regularly by the body of the university, on the 4th of November, out of two persons nominated by the heads of houses.

PROCTORS. The Proctors, who are also annually chosen, on the 10th of October, must be masters of arts. They attend to the discipline and behaviour of the under graduates and bachelors, read the graces, and take the votes in the Whitehood-house.

TAXORS. The Taxors, chosen in like manner as the Proctors, are with them clerks of the market, and have cognizance of weights and measures. Their office was originally made to counterbalance the exorbitance of the town's-people; who, before the foundation of the university had regular endowments, imposed on the scholars, to whom they let their houses for residence.

MODERATORS. The two Moderators superintend the exercises in philosophy, and the examinations previous to the degree of bachelor of arts. This they do as assistants to the proctors.

SCRUTATORS. The Scrutators are appointed to read the grace and take the votes of the Blackhood-house, to which they always belong.

COMMISSARY.

COMMISSARY. The Commissary is an assistant or assessor to the vice-chancellor in his court.

PUBLIC ORATOR. The Public Orator is the mouth of the university on public occasions; writes their letters, and presents noblemen with their degrees, with a speech.

CAPUT. The Caput consists of the vice-chancellor, a doctor of divinity, a doctor of laws, a doctor of physic, a regent and non-regent master of arts, is chosen annually, on the 12th of October; and is to determine what graces are proper to be brought before the body of the university.

OTHER OFFICERS. The university has also two *Librarians*, a *Registrar*, three *Esquire Beadles*, and inferior officers, besides professors in Divinity, Law, Physic, Casuistry, Hebrew, Greek, Arabic, Mathematics, Philosophy, Astronomy, Anatomy, Chemistry, Botany, Modern History, Fossils, and Music.

PENSIONERS. Besides the Fellows and Scholars of the different colleges, there are two other orders of students, called Pensioners. The *greater pensioners* are the young nobility and gentry of fortune, who are called *fellow commoners*, from their dining with the fellows; the *lesser pensioners* are dieted with the scholars; but both live at their own expence.

SIZARS. There is also a large number of scholars of inferior fortune, called Sizars; these, though not regular members of the foundations, are capable of receiving exhibitions, which assist them very much in passing through an expensive education.

COLLEGES. The university buildings consist of twelve colleges and four halls, which last possess the same privileges as the former. Each of these contains apartments for the students and fellows, a master's lodge, a chapel, a library; a hall, and a combination room.

PETER HOUSE COLLEGE. St. Peter's, or as it is more usually called, Peter-house, is by some contended to be the most ancient in either university; but its claim to this distinction is resisted by University, Baliol and Merton Colleges, Oxford. Peter-house claims for its founder Hugh de Balsam, sub-prior of Ely, who, in 1257, the 42d Henry III. purchased two halls or hostels near St. Peter's church, which, though formerly of considerable note, were then fallen to decay. In 1258, he was elected to the see of Ely; but the consent of the king not having been previously obtained, it was some time before the possession of the bishoprick was confirmed to him; which, having received, he at once shared his fortune with his college, removing there the secular brethren of St. John's in the Jewry, and endowing it with a foundation, for the maintenance of a master, fourteen fellows, two bible clerks, and eight scholars.

He

He appointed his successors in the bishoprick, to be patrons and visitors of the college, with the appointment of master, and bequeathed, by his will, 300 marks, viz. 200 to build a hall, and 100 for a court. The charter of incorporation is dated 13th Edward I. anno 1285. The bishop died in 1286, having sat in the see of Ely twenty-eight years. The other principal benefactors were Simon de Montacute, bishop of Ely, who was the author of a new body of statutes, and gave the masters and scholars the privilege of nominating their own members, which, till then, was vested in the bishops of Ely; reserving to himself and successors the power of confirming the nomination. He also bestowed the patronage of the rectory of Kenton, and a small manor in Hadenham, called Chewel. Simon Langham, bishop of Ely, and afterwards archbishop of Canterbury; John Warke-worth, master; John Whitgift, archbishop of Canterbury; Fordham, bishop of Ely; Walpole, bishop of Norwich; Cosins, bishop of Durham; Lady Mary Ramsey; Sir William Browne, M.D.; Edward Lord North, and Dr. Perne, were also important benefactors.

The name of this College is derived from St. Peter's church, which adjoined to it; but the chancel falling down in 1350, it was rebuilt in 1352, and dedicated to St. Mary the Less. The building consists of two courts separated by a cloister and gallery. The largest has been entirely new cased with stone in an elegant manner. The lesser court is divided by the chapel; and on the north side is a lofty elegant building faced with stone, from the upper part of which there is an extensive prospect, taking in Gogmagog hills, &c. This building contains six grand apartments.

The *Chapel* is a fine building, having in the gallery at the west end an organ, given by Sir Horatio Mann; at the east, stands a very handsome altar-piece of Norway oak, over which is a window of fine painted glass, containing the history of our Saviour's crucifixion between the two thieves, the figures almost as large as life. This chapel was built by contribution in 1632, but Matthew Wren, bishop of Ely, and then master of the college, was at the chief expence of it.

There is a grove south of the college, and a large *Garden* beyond it, with very fine fruit, and a cold bath.

There are in this college a master, twenty-two fellows, and forty-three scholarships. The mastership is in the gift of the bishop of Ely, who is *Visitor*. The fellows return two persons, of one of whom he makes his election.

CLARE HALL. This College dates its first foundation from a purchase, made by Richard Badew, or Badow, of Great Badow,

near Chelmsford, in Essex, Chancellor of the University in 1236, 20th Edward III. upon which he erected a small college, and placed therein a principal and some scholars. This establishment had continued sixteen years, when the whole building was destroyed by fire. Dr. Badow being unable himself to defray the charges of rebuilding, applied to Lady Elizabeth, third sister and co-heiress of Gilbert, Earl of Clare, and wife of John de Burgh, Lord of Connaught, in Ireland, and mother of William de Burgh, last earl of Ulster; by whose munificent bounty alone the college was not only entirely restored, but endowed, in 1347, with lands sufficient to maintain a master, ten fellows, and ten scholars; and from that time, it has taken the name of *Clare Hall*. It has also received benefactions from Dr. Barnabas Hey, Thomas Cecil, earl of Exeter, and his lady, Sir George Ruggle, Sir Robert Heath, Archbishop Tillotson, Samuel Blyth, who gave to the value of 6000*l.* in money and books; Dr. Leeds, Henchman, bishop of London, Gunning, bishop of Ely; Sir John Hewet, and some others.

The *situation* of this college is, in many respects, to be preferred to any other in the University, being on the eastern banks of the river, over which it has an elegant stone bridge, leading to a fine vista, beyond which is a beautiful lawn, surrounded by lofty elms and corn fields. A more pleasing prospect cannot be conceived in a level country, which occasions this delightful spot to be much resorted to in summer. Buildings, gardens, groves, the river, and cultivated lands to a great extent, all combine to afford richness and variety to the scene.

The *Buildings* are extremely noble; the front towards the fields being ornamented with pilasters of the Tuscan and Ionic order, and the whole executed with Ketton stone, which gives a very fine effect. It consists of one grand court, or quadrangle, through which is seen the inimitable vista, leading to the fields.

The *Chapel* has been rebuilt from an elegant plan of Sir James Burroughs. The altar-piece, which is a beautiful alcove, is adorned with a fine picture of the Salutation, by Cipriani.

The *Hall* is a very fine room, and the *Combination-room*, the completest of the kind in the University.

The *Library* is also esteemed the handsomest of the size in the University, being neatly shelved with Norway oak; and the master's lodge is most agreeably situated.

Clare Hall maintains 17 fellows, and between thirty and forty scholars.

PEMBROKE HALL. This Hall was founded by Mary, countess of Pembroke, in 1343, and endowed in pursuance of a charter from

from Edward III. for a master and six fellows. Among the benefactors who have enlarged this establishment, Henry VI. is the most considerable ; who augmented it with the rich living of Soham in this county, and with some other rectories. In his charter it is termed, “ the most noble, renowned, precious college, which, among all others in the University, was ever wonderfully resplendent.” This monarch’s beneficence occasioned this college to be called his adopted daughter ; as King’s College was naturally his son. The other benefactors were Laurence Booth, archbishop of York, and Lord Chancellor of England, Dr. Shorton, Sir Philip Booth, Grindall, archbishop of Canterbury, Andrews, and Langton, bishops of Winchester, and Wren, bishop of Ely, who built the chapel, and endowed it with the manor of Hardwicke, in Cambridgeshire, to keep it in repair.

This College consists of two courts. The *Hall*, which divides them, is a handsome room, at the end of which is the combination room. There is something altogether very venerable and pleasing in the appearance of this college, which made Queen Elizabeth, when she passed through Cambridge, salute it with these words :—“ *O domus antiqua et religiosa.*”

The *Chapel* was built from a design of the celebrated Sir Christopher Wren, by his brother Matthew Wren, bishop of Ely, and is one of the most elegant and best proportioned in the University, being about fifty four feet long, twenty-four broad, and upwards of thirty high.

The *Library* takes up almost all the north side of the first court, is a handsome room, and well furnished with useful books. The Rev. Dr. Long, late master of this college, Dr. Lowndes’s professor of astronomy, constructed a sphere (the largest of his time), which he gave to the college, and erected a building in the back court to contain it, at his own expence, and left the interest of 200 *l.* stock to keep the instrument and place in repair. It is eighteen feet in diameter.

The *Garden* is large, and well laid out, full of fruit, and has a good bowling green. The north wall, which is very long, and reflects the warm rays of the south sun, makes the walk which runs parallel to it, one of the best in winter ; but it is private.

The fellowships are 17, the scholarships nearly 70.

CORPUS CHRISTI, or BENE’T’S COLLEGE. This college differs in its origin from all others, in either of the Universities ; those having been founded by the benevolence of one or two persons, while this was established by the union of two guilds, or religious societies, in the town of Cambridge, called *Corpus Christi* and *The Blessed Virgin Mary* ; which, in order to obtain a licence from Edward III. to convert their houses into a college, claimed and obtained the protection and munificent liberality of the celebrated

lebrated Henry of Monmouth, first duke of Lancaster. The name of Bene't or Benedict's College, arose from neighbourhood to a church dedicated to that Saint. Other particular benefactors to this college were Sir John Cambridge, Elizabeth, wife of Thomas Brotherton, duke of Norfolk, son of Edward I.; Eleanor Botelar, her sister; archbishop Parker, who gave the living of St. Mary Abchurch, London, a handsome set of gilt plate, with many printed books; Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper of the Great Seal, who was a student of this college; archbishop Sterne; Dr. John Spencer, author of *De Legibus Hebræorum*; and archbishops Tennison and Herring, with many others.

This College consists principally of one square court, the master's lodge, and the hall, forming the south side; and the apartments of the fellows and students, and the combination room, the west, north, and east.

The *Chapel* is a neat apartment, well fitted up; it has an elegant altar-piece of carved wainscot, supported by two large pillars; in the middle a pannel of crimson velvet, in a gilt frame, the gift of Sir Jacob Astley. Over the door of the ante-chapel, which was built by Sir Nicholas Bacon, is an inscription in letters of gold.

The *Library* (which is celebrated for its MSS.) is over the chapel; and the books are kept with such care, that even a fellow of the college is not admitted to enter it, without having a fellow or scholar of the college with him during his stay there, according to the will of the donor.

The *Hall* is a large room, having two beautiful bow windows, finely ornamented with painted glass, which was taken from the chapel, being the arms of many of the masters and benefactors.

This college contains a master, 12 fellows, 60 scholars, and 3 bible clerks.

Visitors. The Chancellor or Vice Chancellor, with two senior doctors of divinity in the University.

CAIUS COLLEGE. The building of Gonville or Caius, commonly called Key's College, was begun by Edmund de Gonville, rector of Terrington and Rushworth, in Norfolk, who, through the interest of Walter de Manney, obtained a licence, or charter, of Edward III. anno 1348, to incorporate it. The site was originally on the spot now occupied with the garden and tennis court of Bene't; but Dr. Gonville, who died soon after its commencement, having left a large sum of money to Dr. Bateman, bishop of Norwich, to finish and endow it, the bishop, in consequence of an agreement with the master and fellows of Bene't, changed the situation to the neighbourhood of Trinity Hall, which he himself had founded; and, after faithfully performing

the duties of his trust, he gave it the name of *Gonville Hall*, and appointed a master, four fellows, and two scholars.

After a lapse of two hundred years, this college was destined to have a second founder in Dr. John Caius; who had himself, when very young, been admitted a student of *Gonville Hall*. In 1557, being physician to Queen Mary, and a great favourite, he obtained a licence to advance the Hall into a college, which he endowed with very considerable estates, in the counties of Hertford, Dorset, and Cambridge; the advowson of the parsonages of Rungton and Burnhamsthorp, in Norfolk, and doubled the number of fellows. He also added an entire new court, and built three gates at the expence of 1834*l*. From this time the college assumed Dr. Caius's name, and he continued master of it till within a short time of his death. Among the other principal benefactors to this college, are Lady Mary Pakenham, Lady Anne Scroop, Lady Elizabeth Cleere, Dr. Balie, Richard Wilson, Archbishop Parker, Dr. Busby, Dr. Harvey, Sir William Paston, Dr. Legge, Dr. Brainthwate, Dr. Gostling, Dr. Wells, and Dr. Pierse.

Besides a new Court, Dr. Caius built three remarkable *gates* of various and eccentric architecture. That on the south, communicating with the schools, is said to be the first specimen of regular or Roman architecture erected in this country. The gates are respectively inscribed, "*Humilitatis*," the gate of Humility: "*Virtutis*," the gate of Virtue: "*Jo. Caius posuit Sapientiae*," John Caius built this in honour of Wisdom; "*Honoris*," the gate of Honour. The principal court of this college has been partly rebuilt, and the rest cased with stone, and fashed in an elegant manner.

The *Chapel* is not large, but admired for its beauty; is elegantly fitted up with seats and wainscoting of Norway oak, neatly carved; at the east end is the altar, containing the Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin Mary, after Carlo Maratti.

The *Hall* is thirty-nine feet long, and twenty-one broad; and the commemoration room, which is an exceeding good one, opens into the library, which is well furnished with valuable books and MSS. particularly in history, heraldry, and pedigrees.

The *Society* consists of a master, twenty-six fellowships, seventy-one scholarships, and four exhibitioners.

Visitors, The provost of King's College, master of Bene't, and the senior doctor of physic.

TRINITY HALL. The site of this College was anciently an hostel for students, without any endowment, who lived entirely at their own expence. It was enlarged at different periods, by Richard Ling, Chancellor of the University, Thomas Walsingham,

ham, and others. In the reign of Edward III. Richard Craudene, prior of Ely, purchased it for the reception of his monks, who resorted to Cambridge to prosecute their studies; but soon afterwards sold it to William Bateman, bishop of Norwich, who, in the 26th of Edward III. 1351, having obtained a licence from the King, founded this Hall, which he dedicated to the Holy Trinity, in 1347. He appointed a master, two fellows, and three scholars, to be students in the civil and canon law, and one fellow to study divinity, and to be chaplain to the society. This college is situated on the banks of the river, between Trinity College and Clare Hall, and is one of the neatest in Cambridge, having been faced with stone both within and without.

The *Chapel* is small, but very neat. The altar piece contains the Presentation in the Temple.

The *Hall* is a very handsome room, with a gallery for music at the north end; and is ornamented with the portrait of Sir Nathaniel Lloyd, a considerable benefactor.

The *Library* is neatly fitted up, containing, amongst a fine collection of choice and valuable books, an entire study of civil and common law.

The *Garden* affords a very pleasing prospect, the terrace lying on the banks of the river. Among the benefactors to Trinity Hall, previous to the princely bequest of Dr. Andrews, are Gardiner, bishop of Winchester; Nix, bishop of Norwich; Dr. John Cowel; Sir George Newman; Dr. Monse, who gave 80*l.* per annum for repairing the roads towards London, by Hawkestone Mills; and Dr. Henry Harvey, the twelfth master, who, at a great expense, made a railed causeway on the south, and other sides of Cambridge, for the convenience of foot passengers in dirty weather.

This College will be greatly enlarged by the addition of two wings, extending from the present buildings to the river, so as to leave the view open into the country. Dr. John Andrews, late fellow of this college, master of the faculties, and chancellor of London, having, in 1747, bequeathed a legacy of 20,000*l.* for that purpose, payable on the death of two sisters.

The *Society* consists of a master, 12 fellows, and 14 scholars.

KING'S COLLEGE. King's College, which may on many accounts be considered as the most magnificent in Europe, was founded by Henry VI., who, in 1443, bestowed upon it a most ample endowment for a provost, seventy fellows, and scholars, ten conducts, sixteen choristers, and a master for them; six singing clerks, sixteen servants to the college, besides twelve servitors to the senior fellows, and six poor scholars, amounting in all to 131. The dangers which continually threatened Henry's government and life, did not make him unmindful of the task

he had undertaken; for in his will he describes, with the most minute particularity, the dimensions of the college and chapel he intended to build, and according to which the latter was afterward finished. The unfinished state of the college at Henry's death, may justly be lamented, for, according to Stow, "If it had proceeded according to that prince's full intent and meaning, the like college could scarce have been found again in any christian land." Edward IV. was naturally no zealous promoter of the intentions of his predecessor, and he deprived the college of many large estates, to the value of 1000*l.* a-year, all which were given to the Oxonians, then about the court. Nor did the building much advance during the turbulent reign of Richard III.; but Henry VII. in whom the line of Lancaster was restored, began, towards the latter end of his reign, to complete the labours of the founder, expending 2000*l.* and presenting the college with the sum of 5000*l.* for the purpose of finishing the chapel. He also ordered at his decease, that his executors should supply the college, from time to time, with different sums of money, sufficient for completing the building. The list of benefactors to this college is very numerous. Dr. William Smith, when provost, gave books to the value of 100*l.* and a salt worth 40*l.*; a fine standing cup, with pendent moving figures surrounding the middle: and both sides of the choir were wainscotted at the expence of Robins, Henshaw, and Weaver, fellows of the college.

This College consists of several large piles of building detached from each other. The old court is situate on the north side of the chapel, between the publick schools and Clare Hall; being about 120 feet long and 90 broad, built of stone to a great height, in which, however, there are but few commodious apartments. The new court forms a quadrangle, by the chapel on the north, the new building (which is very magnificent) on the west, and a brick building on the east, in which are a school and some other apartments, adjoining to which is a large lodge for the provost; on the south, another pile of buildings is designed, which is to contain the hall and provost's lodge, with other apartments. This quadrangle is upwards of 300 feet long, and almost as many broad. On the west side, and near the battlements of the old building, are fixed some grotesque heads, each having a leaden pipe in its mouth for the purpose of carrying off the water.

The *Chapel* of King's College is justly esteemed, by connoisseurs, the most perfect and magnificent monument of Gothic architecture in the world. How far it had advanced at the founder's death is uncertain: it is probable that it was raised pretty high at the east end, and carried on sloping towards the west, to the height of the white stone. Henry the first founder had

had settled a great part of the revenues of the duchy of Lancaster, and also a stone quarry in Yorkshire, for the completion of the work; but Edward IV. on his accession, seized the revenue appropriated for the continuance of the building. An entire stop was consequently put to the works until Dr. Field, warden of Winchester college, and chaplain to Edward, was chosen provost in 1479, and appointed overseer of the works, in which situation he remained till 1483. Nothing from that time appears to have been done, until the appointment of Thomas Cliff as overseer, by Richard III. who expended 700*l.* upon the building. The work was thus slowly advancing, until the reign of Henry VII. who finished, or rather left a legacy for finishing, the outer walls and buttresses. In 1513, the executors of Henry paid to the provost and scholars 5000*l.* for the completion of the chapel, from which time it proceeded with rapidity. The builders immediately began to add a second and inner roof of stone, instead of a Gothic arch, in forming which, and disposing the materials, the architect has displayed such a profound knowledge of geometrical principles, as to confound almost every artist who has since examined his workmanship. It has not so much as the appearance of a pillar to uphold it, the towers and buttresses being its only support. In the middle of this roof, and in the flattest part of it, are fixed perpendicularly, at equal distances from one another, stones adorned with roses and portcullises, every one of which is not less than a ton weight. The disposition of these keystones has embarrassed the best architects. Mr. Walpole says, that Sir Christopher Wren went once a year to survey the roof, and said, that "if any man would shew him where to place the stone, he would engage to build such another."

This roof was executed by John Wastell and Henry Seme-rick, who by an indenture still extant agree "to make, and set up at their own costs and charges, a good, sure, and sufficient vawte, for the great church there, to be workmanly wrought, made and sett up after the best handling and form of good workmanship according to a plat thereof made and signed with the hands of the lords executors to the king of most famous memorye Henry the VII. &c." They also agree to provide stone, and every other requisite for the said work, to finish it in three years, and to receive 1200*l.* for their whole labour and materials.

The design of the chapel is at once bold, chaste, and profound; and its exterior and interior effects are grand and impressive. It consists of only one space or aisle, which is 287 feet in length, by 44 feet in width, and 93 feet in height. This spacious apartment is surrounded with various

attractive beauties; and the sculptor, painter, glazier, and architect, seem to emulate each other in exciting admiration. The whole interior superficies is covered with numerous sculptured ornaments, among which the arms and cognizances of the houses of York and Lancaster are most prevalent. The rose, portcullis, fleur de lis, with shields of arms, are stuck all over the walls. These are carved in high alto relievo, and are executed with great skill and taste. Some of the supporters display the hand of a first-rate statuary, and though cut in stone, are equal, in contour, expression, and character, to almost any marble sculpture.

About the middle of the chapel is a partition skreen of wood curiously carved, separating the ante-chapel from the choir, which was built in 1534, when Anne Boleyn was queen to Henry VIII. On the front of it are many lovers' knots; and in a pannel nearest to the wall, on the right, are the arms of Anne Boleyn, impaled with those of her royal husband: and on one of the pannels on the same side, is carved a most lively representation of the Almighty casting down the rebellious angels from heaven. This small piece of sculpture is universally admired.

On the left of the choir door, and in the pannel nearest to it, the supporters of the arms of Henry VIII. are executed with inimitable skill. On the partition stands the organ, which, however, does not prevent a full view of the beautiful roof, from the great west door to the east window, a view which must strike any mind with awe and admiration.

On the same partition are fixed nine colours, taken from the island of Manilla, by Sir William Draper, who commanded the British troops at the reduction of the island, in 1762. Sir William, being a fellow of this college, obtained his majesty's permission to present the society with these trophies of his victories.

Underneath the organ, through folding-doors finely carved (on which are seen the arms of James I. in whose reign they were set up), is the entrance to the choir, which is strikingly grand. The stalls are in two rows, on each side of the chapel, in carved wood. The sides were wainscotted in 1595, at the expense of Thomas Weaver, a fellow of the college.

The back part of the upper stalls, appointed for graduate fellows, is made up of thirty-four pannels; in fifteen of which, on each side of the choir, are carved the arms of all the kings of England, from Henry V. to James I.; the arms of the two Universities of Cambridge and Oxford, and the two colleges, King's and Eton. The supporters of these arms advance out from the pannels in full proportion; and, indeed, the greatest part

part of the carved work is in *alto relievo*. On the right and left of the entrance of the choir, are the seats of the provost and vice provost. At the back of the provost's stall, St. George and the Dragon, with some figures, the work of which is executed in a most inimitable manner, are carved.

The lower row of stalls contains nearly the same number of seats with the upper immediately above it; and is appointed for the under-graduate fellows, the scholars, and the singing clerks. Under these lower stalls are erected benches, on two of which sit the choristers on each side of the chapel.

The pavement of the choir is of black and white marble, which, though its beauty is much effaced by the dampness of the soil underneath, still preserves a rich and costly appearance.

A new and grand altar-piece has been erected, under the direction of the late Mr. James Essex, F. S. A. which has received great ornament by the present of a valuable painting from the present earl of Carlisle, who was educated at this college. The subject is the taking down of our Saviour from the Cross.

The windows, which are of the Gothic form, are not to be equalled in Europe. The pieces represented, are the most striking features of different parts of the history contained in the Old and New Testament, and are depicted in the most lively colours. There are twenty-six large windows, which are all painted with colours inconceivably beautiful, excepting the great east window, which seems to have been left plain, in order to give light to the chapel. It has been often said that all the windows of the chapel were taken down and hidden, through fear of Oliver Cromwell; lest, in obedience to the fanatic principles he professed, he should destroy them as relics of popery; and that the west window, through the confusion thus occasioned, was either lost or stolen. But no such accident ever happened, though visitors were undoubtedly sent down by the long parliament to Cambridge, whose business it was to remove every superstitious ornament about the University. In pursuance to their commission, they, indeed, ordered the organ then in use to be taken down, and sold the pipes; but offered not the slightest injury to the windows, which were probably spared at the intercession of Dr. Whichcot, then provost, who was promoted to that dignity by the long parliament. The image, however, of the Virgin Mary, (over the south door within the choir,) did not escape the hands of some furious enthusiast, who, in a fit of religious phrenzy, effaced an object so offensive to his jaundiced sight. Each window is separated, by what architects call muntins into five lights. These are divided about the middle into an upper and lower part by a stone transom. There is one of these five lights (in all the windows except the eastern,) both in the upper and lower divisions, viz. the one in the middle, on which are de-

scribed figures of Saints or Angels (two in the upper parts and two in the lower) with labels affixed to each, explaining the paintings on the lights placed on either side of them. There is a particular correspondence between the paintings of the same window in the upper and lower divisions. As, for example, in the upper division, a piece of History, taken from the Old Testament, is painted on two lights, on the left side of a window. In the lower division, on the same side, on two lights immediately underneath those in the upper part, is painted some circumstance selected from the New Testament, corresponding to that above it from the Old. The lower divisions of windows on the north side, contain a part of our Saviour's history, including some short time before his birth; the last of the paintings describing the circumstance of his being scourged before Pontius Pilate. It is impossible to convey any idea of these historical paintings, which will not fall short of their excessive beauty; for, in the greater part of them, the shape and attitude of particular figures, the fitness and expression of their countenances, and the colouring and easy flow of the drapery, are all wonderfully natural, and far beyond the limits of description.

The arms of Henry VIII. and the initial letter of his name, printed on the windows, has raised a conjecture, that they were glazed at his expence; but, it is more probable, that part of the legacy in the will of Henry VII. was devoted to that purpose. It, however, appears, from Bloomfield's History of Norfolk, that Robert Rix, bishop of Norwich, was an involuntary contributor to this noble purpose, for having incurred a præmunire for extending his jurisdiction over the mayor of Thetford, he was fined for it, and part of the fine was appropriated to the purchase of the windows of painted glass in King's College chapel.

On the north and south sides of the chapel, are eighteen small vestries or chantries (nine on each side,) which appear to have been devoted to the ceremony of saying mass for the souls of the deceased; and any superior of the society, who was inclined to have that service performed for his soul, endowed one of these vestries for the purpose.

The outside dimensions of the chapel are, length from east to west, 316 feet. Breadth from north to south, 84 feet. Height from the ground to the top of the battlements, 90 feet. Height from the ground to the top of the pinnacles, about 101 feet. Height from the ground to the top of any one of the corner towers, $146\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE. This College was founded in 1448 by Margaret, daughter of Rene, duke of Anjou, titular king of Sicily and Jerusalem, and the intrepid wife of Henry VI. king of England. After the murder of Henry VI. and the expulsion of Margaret

Margaret from the throne and realm, Queen Elizabeth Woodville, wife of Edward IV. was so considerable a benefactress, that she is annually commemorated as a co-foundress of the college. Andrew Ducket, a friar, rector of St. Botolph, in Cambridge, and principal of Bernard Hotel, the sole procurer and advancer of this foundation, was the first master of this college, in which station he continued forty years; and having the good fortune to be favoured by both the houses of York and Lancaster, he obtained contributions from the princes of both families; particularly from Richard III. and Queen Elizabeth, and other noble benefactors, which enabled him to finish the college. Richard's benefaction alone, if it had not been resumed in the succeeding reign, by Henry VII. had been an ample provision for this society; for it consisted of all the estate of John de Vere, thirteenth earl of Oxford, which was forfeited by his adherence to the Earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. but restored to the earl of Oxford on Henry's mounting the throne. Other benefactors were Thomas Barry, a citizen of London, who gave the ground on which the college was built; John Mark, Lady Jane Burrough, John Collinson, John Green, John Alfey and Lady Wiat, who founded each a fellowship; John Drewell, canon of St. Paul's, London, founded two fellowships; John Darby founded one fellowship, and Lady Margery Ross founded the five senior divines fellowships. George, duke of Clarence, Cicely, Duchess of York, Richard III. and Lady Anne, his wife, Edward, earl of Salisbury, Maud, Countess of Oxford, Marmaduke Lumlay, bishop of Lincoln, Andrew Ducket, Master Hugh Trotter, D.D. William Weld, Sir Thomas Smith, Henry Wilshaw, Dr. Stokes, Henry Hastings, Earl of Huntingdon, John Jocelyn, George Mountain, John D'Avenant, and David Hughes, are also in the list of considerable benefactors.

Queen's College is situated on the river near the King's mill; and consists of two courts, besides a pile of building near the gardens. The principal court is 96 feet long and 84 broad. The second court is surrounded by a cloister, about 330 feet in circumference. The college has, within these few years, received a noble improvement, by a new and exceedingly grand front next the river.

The *Chapel* is about 54 feet long, and 21 broad, and is fitted up with remarkable neatness.

The *Hall* is a large room, and is ornamented with the portraits of Elizabeth wife of Edward IV. and some others. The lodge is furnished with a great number of portraits of eminent persons.

The greatest beauty of this college is its grove and *gardens*; which, lying on both sides of the river, are connected with each

each other, and the college by two bridges of wood. The structure of one of the bridges is curious, being built of one arch upon piers of stone. The gardens are very extensive and well planted with fruit, and adorned with rows of elms and fine walks.

The society consists of a president, 20 fellows, 45 scholars, and 8 exhibitioners.

Visitor. The King.

CATHARINE HALL. This Hall was founded in 1475, by Dr. Richard Woodlark, who having obtained a licence from Edward IV. for that purpose, purchased four tenements in Mill-street, whereon this hall was built, for one master and three fellows; dedicating it to St. Catherine, the Virgin and Martyr. The list of benefactors to this college is very numerous. Among the principal, are Isabella the founder's sister; Lady Elizabeth Barnardiston; Sir Charles Bolwis, bart.; Edward Sandys, archbishop of York; Overall, bishop of Litchfield; Brownrig, bishop of Exeter; John Lightfoot, S. T. P.; Sir Thomas Rookly, one of the judges of the common pleas; Dr. Addenbrooke; archbishop Dawes; Dr. Sherlock; Queen Anne, who annexed the prebend of Norwich to the college; Dr. Cross, and Dr. Hubbard, masters; Mrs. Mary Ramsden, of Norton in Yorkshire, who left a considerable estate for finishing the building opposite the chapel, and for founding six fellowships and ten scholarships; and Dr. Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London.

Catherine Hall is situated between Queen's College, on the west, and Trompington-street on the east. The principal front is on the west, opposite to Queen's, and is one of the most extensive and regular in the University. The entrance of the college on this side, is through a covered arch or portico, that leads into a court about 180 feet long and 120 broad.

The *Chapel*, on the north side of the court, is a fine piece of architecture, built chiefly of brick; but the door case, window frames, and coins of stone. This chapel, including the ante-chapel, is about 75 feet long, 30 broad, and 36 in height, finely beautified and adorned; and in the ante-chapel is a noble monument of white marble, erected by Sir William Dawes, archbishop of York, in memory of his lady.

The *Hall* is about 42 feet long and 24 broad, and of a proportionable height, elegantly stuccoed; over this and the combination room, is the *Library*, fitted up at the expence of Dr. Thomas Sherlock, late bishop of London, who bequeathed to the college his large and valuable library, and a stipend for a librarian.

The *Master's Lodge* is a spacious lofty building, and with the additional building by Mrs. Ramsden, extending as far to the

eastward as the chapel, forms the south side of the court, which being opened towards Trompington-street, with iron palisadoes, and a spacious area of the ground planted with elms, is of considerable ornament to the town.

The *Society* consists of a master, 12 fellows, 2 chaplains, and about 40 scholars and exhibitioners.

JESUS COLLEGE. This College was originally an old nunnery of the Benedictine order, dedicated to St. Radigund. The irregular lives of these frail sisters occasioned its dissolution; and the college was founded in the twelfth of Henry VII. 1496, by John Alcock, bishop of Ely, and Chancellor of England. Henry VII. and Pope Julius II. granted Bishop Alcock considerable landed property for the endowment of the college; sufficient for the maintenance of a master, six fellows, and six scholars. It was styled the college of the Blessed Virgin St. Mary, St. John the Evangelist, and the Virgin St. Radegund; and derives its name of Jesus College from the conventual church (now the chapel), dedicated first to the name of Jesus. The principal benefactors are Stanley, bishop of Ely; Sir Robert Read; Dr. Preston; Dr. Fuller; Lady Price; Lady Margaret Boswell; Sterne, archbishop of York, who gave a yearly pension of 40*l.* for four scholarships; Dr. Brunfel; Tobias Rustet, esq. who founded eight scholarships, of 50*l.* each per annum, for the orphans of clergymen; Dr. Gatford; Dr. Cooke; Sir John Risley; Thomas Sutton, founder of the Charter House; Thirleby, bishop of Ely, who gave the advowson of six vicarages; and Sir Thomas Proby. Dr. Henry Cæsar, Dean of Ely, in 1614, bequeathed 1000*l.* to found two fellowships and four scholarships in some college in Cambridge; and Sir Charles Cæsar, his nephew and executor, made choice of Jesus, and established the objects of the bequest. Being persuaded, by Archbishop Laud, to lend the money to Charles I., the salaries were for some time paid out of his own pocket, hoping to be repaid by the crown; but his endeavours for that purpose failed, and thus this noble legacy was entirely lost to the College.

Jesus College is situated east of the town, and surrounded by groves, gardens, and verdant meadows. The grand front looks towards the south, and is about 180 feet in length, regularly built and finished. The entrance is by a magnificent gate, over which are some pleasant apartments. The principal court is built on three sides, and is about 141 feet long, and 120 broad; the west side lies open to the fields, having only a dwarf-wall and iron palisadoes upon it. There is a fine prospect of the country on every side.

The *Chapel* is built in the conventual form, with cross aisles, and a large square tower; raised on arches over their intersection
with

with the nave. The chancel, which is the only part of it used for divine service, is handsomely fitted up, and adorned with an altar-piece, stalls, and an organ-gallery.

The *Hall* is a handsome room, 54 feet long, 27 broad, and 30 high, to which the ascent is by several steps.

There is a *Cloister*, like those in the nunneries abroad, which furrounds a small court, lately beautified and rendered more open and airy. It leads to the chapel, hall, master's lodge, and several apartments of the students. The master's lodge is one of the pleasantest in the university; and both the masters and fellows have large separate gardens.

The *Society* consists of a master, sixteen fellows, forty-one scholars and exhibitioners.

Visitor. The bishop of Ely.

CHRIST'S COLLEGE. Christ's College was founded in 1505, 21st Henry VII. by Margaret, countess of Richmond and Derby, the learned and pious mother of Henry VII. and sole heiress of John Beaufort, duke of Somerset, grandson of John of Gaunt. It was placed on the site of a monastery, called God's House, opposite to St. Andrew's church; and a master, twelve fellows, and forty-seven scholars (in all sixty), were appointed; to which Edward VI. added another fellowship out of the impropriation of Bourne, which he gave to the college, as well as the revenues of Bromwell abbey. Henry VI. being the founder of the monastery called God's House, he is commemorated as a co-founder. Sir Thomas Finch and Sir John Baines founded two scholarships and two fellowships, Fisher, bishop of Rochester, Sir Walter Mildmay, Dr. Patinson, Nicholas Culverwell, Thomas Langton, Mr. Wentworth, Sir Robert Isham, and Richard Carr, were also considerable benefactors.

This College stands north of Emanuel, opposite to St. Andrew's church, and has one grand court, about 138 feet long, and 120 broad, formed by the chapel, master's lodge, hall, and apartments for the students. It is cased with stone, and fashed in a handsome manner. There is likewise an uniform pile of stone building, next the garden and the field, about 150 feet in length, from which there is a fine view of the adjacent country.

The *Chapel*, including the Ante-Chapel, is about eighty-four feet long, twenty-seven broad, and thirty high, floored with marble, well adorned and finished, and has an organ gallery on the north side of it.

The *Hall* is a handsome room, forty-five feet long, twenty-seven broad, and thirty high. The Fellows' *Garden* is well laid out and pleasant, there being both open and shady walks, beautiful

tiful alcoves, a bowling green, and an excellent summer-house, behind which is a cold bath surrounded with a little wilderness.

The *Society* consists of a master, fifteen fellows, and fifty-four scholars.

Visitors. The Vice-chancellor and two senior doctors.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE. This College received its name from the dissolved hospital of St. John's, on the site whereof it was built. It was founded the 9th of April, 1511, by the executors under the will of Margaret, countess of Richmond, foundress of Christ's. The countess being under some engagement to her son, Henry VII., to forward Westminster, obtained his consent to alter her purpose, and by her will devised certain lands in the counties of Devon, Somerset, and Northampton, of the value of 400 *l.* per annum, together with the site of the dissolved priory of St. John's, in Cambridge, and the revenue thereof, amounting to 80 *l.* a year, to her executors, Fox, bishop of Winchester, Fisher, bishop of Rochester, and others, in trust for the building and endowing of the college. The exertions of bishop Fisher were so unremitting, that the first court was finished in 1515, the expence being between 4 and 5000 *l.*; but the estates in the counties of Devon, Somerset, and Northampton, being resumed by the crown, the revenues were very inconsiderable, the allowance to each fellow being no more than 12 *d.* per week, and 7 *d.* per week for each scholar. In 1516, bishop Fisher himself came to Cambridge, being chancellor of the university, and assisted at the opening of the college, which was performed with great solemnity. He also constituted Dr. Alan Percy, master; Dr. Shorton, who had been indefatigable in forwarding the buildings, and active in the government of the college, having resigned. Thirty-one fellows were chosen at the same time, and a set of statutes framed and sworn to.

St. John's College consists of three courts, lying between the High-street and the river. The first is entered by a magnificent gate, adorned with four towers of stone and brick, on the north or right hand of which stands the chapel; on the west, opposite the gate, is the hall, and in the angle formed by them, the master's lodge; and the rest of the court, which is about 228 feet long, and 216 broad, is taken up by the apartments of the students. The south side is rebuilt with stone, and makes a handsome appearance.

The second court is chiefly taken up with the apartments of the fellows, only on the north a beautiful gallery, belonging to the master's lodge, extends the whole length of its principal floor, quite from the chapel in the first court to the library in the third. This is much the largest court, being upwards of 270 feet in length, and 240 in breadth.

From

From the second court the way to the third is by a grand open arch or portico; this court, which is the least of the three, is situate on the river, and has walks and groves on the opposite side, in full view. Under the apartments on the west is a commodious cloister; and on the north is the college library, built by that public spirited prelate, archbishop Williams, who was the greatest benefactor of his time to every literary establishment.

The *Chapel*, with the Ante-Chapel, is 120 feet long, and 27 broad, separated by the organ-gallery. The service is performed as in cathedrals; a certain number of singing men and choristers attending.

The *Hall* is a good room, about 60 feet long and 30 broad, adorned with fine paintings, and the lodge is a grand apartment similarly decorated.

Adjoining to the master's lodge is the *Library*, built by archbishop Williams. It is a spacious room, exceedingly well furnished with scarce and valuable books, in all languages, and carries more the appearance of the library of an university, than a single college. There is one class given by Matthew Prior, the poet, which consists principally of French books, particularly history. This college possesses every attraction which wood, water, and green fields can afford it. A fine stone bridge, of no less than three arches, over the sluggish Cam, leads from the college to a grand walk, flanked with lofty elms, at the end of which lies the *Fellows' Garden*, where they have an elegant summer-house, bowling green, and most agreeable walks, looking into the grounds of Trinity College on one side, and an open cultivated country on the other. The paths, encompassing two small meadows on the river side, are much admired.

The *Society* consists of a master, sixty-one fellows, above one hundred scholars, and many exhibitioners.

VISITOR. The bishop of Ely.

MAGDALEN COLLEGE. The original founder of this college was Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, son of Henry, who was beheaded in the reign of Richard III. Edward being restored to his father's honours and estate, became the distinguished favourite of Henry VIII., but was afterwards sacrificed to that tyrant's capricious rage. The college not being legally completed on the duke's death (as was pretended in the case of Christ-church, Oxford, founded by Wolsey), Thomas Lord Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high chancellor of England, obtained a grant from Henry VIII. incorporated the society by the name of "The Master and Fellows of St. Mary Magdalen College, in the University of Cambridge," and endowed

dowed it with lands for the maintenance of a master and four fellows, which number has since been increased to sixteen, by the benefactions of Mr. Dennis, in 1543; Mr. Spendloffe, of Lincoln, in 1584; Sir Christopher Ray, lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, in 1587; and, at his death in 1592, the countess of Warwick, daughter of the said Sir Christopher, in 1624; Mr. John Smith, president of the college, in 1637; and the Rev. Mr. Drue Drury, in 1698. Several good fellowships and exhibitions were founded by John Hughs, chancellor of Bangor, in 1543; Mr. Roberts, in 1591; Godfrey Fuljamb, esq. in 1604; Mr. William Holmes, in 1656; Dr. Dupont, master of this college, in 1679; Dr. Milner, vicar of Bexhill, in Sussex, in 1722; and his sister, Mrs. Milner; Dr. Millington, vicar of Kensington, in 1724; and his brother, Mr. James Millington. The most considerable contributors to the new building were, Gabriel Quadring, D. D. rector of Dry Drayton, and master of this college; earl of Anglesea; Sir Thomas Sanderfon, afterwards lord Castleton; James, earl of Suffolk; bishop Rainbow; Samuel Pepys, esq.; bishop Cumberland; Charles Seymour; duke of Somerset; lord North and Grey; Dr. Dupont; Sir Edward Sawyer, attorney general.

Magdalen is the only college on the north side of the river, and in that part of the town called Castle End. The largest court is about 111 feet long, and 78 broad; the chapel and master's lodge being on the north, and the hall on the east. The second court is handsome, and more removed from the noise of the town. On the north-east is a handsome stone building, with a cloister in front, and the fellows' apartment, in the north and south wings.

The *Chapel*, which is extremely neat, is 48 feet long, 18 broad, and of a proportionable height. The alter-piece of plaister of Paris, representing the Resurrection, in *alto relievo*, by the ingenious Mr. Collins, is worthy of observation.

The *Hall* is 45 feet long, 18 broad, and 21 high, having a good gallery and combination room at the south end.

The old *Library*, in the north-east angle of the first court, is well furnished with printed books and manuscripts. Over the cloister in the second court is an invaluable library, with this inscription and motto:—*Bibliotheca Pepyhana. "Mens cujusque is est quisque."* In this collection are the books and manuscripts of Samuel Pepys, esq. secretary to the Admiralty, in the reigns of Charles II. and James II. They consist of a large collection of acts of state, books and manuscripts relating to maritime affairs, in several reigns. There is, also, in this library, a great number of curious prints and drawings, by the most celebrated masters in Europe.

The

The *Society*, at present, consists of a master, sixteen fellows, forty scholars and exhibitioners.

Visitor. Lord Howard.

TRINITY COLLEGE. This College was founded by Henry VIII. on the site of two other colleges, and a hostel, viz.—1. King's Hall, founded by Henry III. 2. St. Michael's, built by — Harvey, of Stanton, chancellor of the exchequer, 17th Edward II.; and, 3. Physick's Hostel, built by William Physick, esquire-beadle; to the revenues of which houses Henry VIII. made great additions, and erected one spacious college, dedicating it to the Holy Trinity, appointing a master, sixty fellows, sixty-seven scholars, four conducts, three publick professors, thirteen poor scholars, twenty beadsmen, besides servants. Subsequent benefactors were, Thomas Allen, clerk; Sir Edward Stanhope, who gave 900*l.* to the library; the lady Bromley; the lady Anne Weald; Mrs. Elizabeth Elvis; Dr. Bill, master; Dr. Beaumont, master; Dr. Whitgift, master; Dr. Cofins; Dr. Barrow, master; Dr. Skevington; William Cooper, esq.; Sir William Lidley; Sir Thomas Lake; Sir John Suckling; Dr. Robert Bankworth; Sir Ralph Hare; Dr. Duport; Sir Thomas Sclater; Dr. Babbington; bishop Hacket; the reverend and learned Dr. Robert Smith; the late master, Dr. Hooper; and Dr. Richard Walker.

Trinity College is situate between the High-street on the east, and the river Cam on the west, having St. John's college on the north, and Caius college on the south, and contains two spacious quadrangles. The first court, next the street, is much the largest, being 344 feet in length on the west side, and 325 on the east; 287 feet broad on the south side, and 256 on the north. It has a magnificent gate, which is the entrance from the street; and another gate, adorned with four lofty towers, called Queen's-gate, on the south. The chapel, the master's lodge, and the hall, form near one half of this grand quadrangle; in the middle of which is a beautiful conduit of an octagonal figure, supported by pillars, which supplies the college with excellent water, always running, conveyed thither by a subterraneous aqueduct a mile in length. The south end of the west side has been rebuilt in an elegant style, and is a specimen of the manner of which it is proposed to rebuild the whole quadrangle. In this building are the new combination rooms, the largest of which is very neatly fitted up, and adorned with paintings. The second court, which was built by Dr. Thomas Nevill, dean of Canterbury, master of this college, and called Nevill's Court, measures 228 feet on the south side, 223 on the north, 132 on the east, and 148 on the west. The greatest part of the south and north sides having been rebuilt, and the

other parts much altered, and beautified with a balustrade, and other ornaments, this court is esteemed the most elegant, being encompassed on three sides by a spacious piazza, over which are the library and apartments of the students; the hall forming the east side of the court, in the front of which is a grand tribunal upon a terrace, with a handsome flight of steps and balustrade. The area, in the middle, is laid out in one beautiful large grass-plot, with a neat border of stone round it.

The *Chapel* is a grand and elegant structure, 204 feet in length, including the Ante-chapel, and 33 feet 8 inches broad on the inside; the height 43 feet 7 inches. A beautiful simplicity reigns throughout the building. The altar-piece is a fine painting by West; the subject, St. Michael driving the rebellious angels out of heaven. The chapel is adorned with elegant stalls, and a noble organ-gallery, which separates the chapel from the ante-chapel. Here are singing men and choristers as in a cathedral, and a most admirable organ; in no place can the audience be more gratified with solemn church-music, nor is the eye less delighted than the ear, from the great number of students ranged in regular order, in this noble oratory, which is illuminated in the evening by a vast number of wax lights. In the ante-chapel stands, erected at the expence of the late master, Dr. Smith, a noble statue of Sir Isaac Newton, executed by the celebrated Roubillac, and esteemed an admirable piece of statuary.

Near the chapel stands the *Master's Lodge*, in which are very grand apartments, fit for the reception of a prince; and here the king always resides and is entertained, whenever he visits Cambridge. The judges, also, in their circuits, make this their residence during the assizes.

The *Hall*, at the south end of the master's lodge, is suitable to the other public buildings; being upward of 100 feet long, forty broad, and fifty high, with two grand bow windows of an extraordinary depth. It is adorned with many portraits and busts.

The *Library*, which constitutes the west end of Neuell's, or the inner court, is the grandest structure of the kind in the kingdom; being 190 feet in length, forty in breadth, and thirty-eight in height within. It is ascended by a spacious stair-case, wainscotted with cedar, the steps of black marble; and entering by folding doors at the north end, it appears inexpressibly beautiful: the floor is of marble. The spacious shelves, which are thirty in number, are of oak, which time has reduced to the colour of cedar: and the great number of scarce and valuable books and manuscripts they contain richly deserve attention. This library, which for the elegance, taste, and judgment displayed

played in the inside, may justly be styled the first gallery in Europe, is adorned on the outside with pilasters, carved chapiters, and architraves; and a stone balustrade runs round the top of it. Over the east front are four fine statues, representing Divinity, Law, Physic, and Mathematics, done by Mr. Caius Gabriel Cibber, (father of Colley Cibber the poet laureat.) All the upper parts of the arches are filled up. Under the library is a spacious piazza of equal dimensions, out of which open three gates of wrought iron towards the river; over which is a way to the walks by a fine stone bridge of three arches. The *walks* are about the third part of a mile in circumference, having the river and elegant buildings on the east, and corn fields and an open country on the west. There is a fine vista through the lofty limes of the middle walk; and on the north and south are shady rows of horse-chestnuts and limes, which make the whole very delightful, and much frequented both at noon-day and evening. These walks, which, together with those of Saint John's, Clare Hall, and King's Colleges, skirt the whole west side of the town, afford the most advantageous view of the principal buildings. There are few places in Europe where so many elegant edifices may be taken into the eye at once, on one side, and a rural landscape of native simplicity on the other.

Visitor. The bishop of Ely.

EMANUEL COLLEGE. This college was founded by Sir Walter Mildmay, of Chelmsford, in Essex, chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and of the exchequer; a man, according to Camden and others, of uncommon merit in his public and private character, who obtained a licence, or charter of incorporation, from queen Elizabeth. He built the college upon the site of the Dominican convent of black preaching friars, and endowed it for the maintenance of a master, three fellows, and four scholars. On the 29th of September, 1784, and just 200 years since the foundation of the college, the society, according to ancient custom, concluded the century with a grand jubilee. Some of the principal subsequent benefactors were, queen Elizabeth; Henry, earl of Huntington; Sir Francis Hastings; Sir Robert Jermyn; Sir Francis Walsingham, secretary of state; Sir Henry Killigrew; Sir Wolson Dixie, founder of two fellowships and two scholarships; Sir John Hart; Sir Samuel Leonard; Sir Thomas Skinner; Edward Leeds, LL.D.; Alderman Radcliffe; John Morley; Dr. Richardson; Sir Henry Mildmay; Lady Grace Mildmay, who gave four exhibitions; Dr. Holbeck, who founded a chatechistical lecture in divinity, and a lecture upon ecclesiastical history; Dr. Sudbury, dean of Durham, who, besides other benefactions, founded a Greek lecture, and gave 6 *l.* per ann. to purchase a piece of plate to be bestowed

bestowed upon the most pious and best learned of the commencing bachelors of arts in each year; Lady Sadler, foundress of the algebra lecture; Dr. Whichcot, who, besides other benefactions to the college, founded four exhibitions; Dr. Branthwaite, founder of two scholarships; Francis Ashe, Esq. who besides settling a fund for buying books for the library, and other uses of the college, founded ten exhibitions, giving a preference to his own relations, then to the schools of Derby and Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and, for want of such, to clergymen's sons; archbishop Sancroft, who contributed great sums towards building the chapel and other uses, and gave all his books to the library; Mr. Hobbs, founder of two exhibitions; Mr. Gillingham, founder of a fellowship; Mr. Robert Johnson, archdeacon of Leicester, founder of four exhibitions, with a preference to sons of godly ministers, and such as have been brought up in the public schools of Oakham or Uppingham, in Rutlandshire; Mrs. Anne Hunt, foundress of two exhibitions for scholars born in the county of Suffolk; Mr. Walter Richards, founder of two exhibitions; Mr. Wells, rector of Thurning, who gave an exhibition; Nicholas Aspinal, who founded an exhibition, with a preference to the school of Clithew in Lancashire, and then to the free school of Bedford; Dr. Thorpe, prebendary of Canterbury, who settled five exhibitions, designed chiefly for bachelors of arts, with some preference to the sons of orthodox ministers of the church of England, and of the diocese of Canterbury, and such as have been brought up in the King's school there; John Brown, B. D. rector of Wallington, in Hertfordshire, who, in the year 1736, left upwards of 2000 *l.* for the augmentation of the mastership, and four of the fellowships, and for the settling two Greek scholarships, with a preference to the King's school in Canterbury, and then to any school in Kent: he also gave 50 *l.* and part of his books to the library. To these might be added the late earls of Westmoreland, with many others, who generously contributed to the expences of the new building, &c.

Emanuel College is situate on the south-east of the town, from whence there is a very extensive prospect of the adjacent country. On the west, next the street, is erected a handsome building, which makes the principal court very beautiful, having on the south an elegant uniform stone building, adorned with a balustrade and parapet; and opposite to it, on the north, the hall, combination room, and master's lodge; on the east is a fine cloister with thirteen arches, and an handsome gallery over it, well furnished and adorned with the portraits of the founder, several of the benefactors, and former members of the college.

college. In the middle of the cloister is the entrance into the chapel.

The *Chapel*, including the ante-chapel, is eighty-four feet long, thirty broad, and twenty-seven high, and is extremely well adorned and furnished. The altar-piece is a very grand painting of the prodigal son, by Ammiconi: the floor is marble, and the ceiling stucco. There is a neat organ, and a gallery for the master's family. In the middle of the chapel hangs a curious glass chandelier, which has a beautiful appearance when lighted.

The *Hall* is one of the most elegant in the university.

The combination-room adjoins to the hall, and is neatly fitted up.

The *Library* is a good room, and contains a large collection of well-chosen books; among which is Tully's Epistles by Faust, with a beautiful illumination of Henry VIII. when a boy (whose book it was), and of his preceptor.

The *Gardens* are extensive and pleasant, with a bowling green and cold bath; over which is a neat brick-building, fashioned in front, containing a commodious little room to dress in. The curious take notice of a fine young cedar tree in this garden.

The *Society* consists of a master, fifteen fellowships, fifty scholarships, ten sizar's places, and thirty-seven exhibitions.

SIDNEY SUSSEX COLLEGE. The foundress of this college was the lady Frances Sidney, countess of Suffex, daughter of William Sidney, knighted at the battle of Flodden Field, and steward of the household to Edward VI.; sister to Sir Henry Sidney, knight of the garter, and lord president of Wales; aunt of Sir Philip Sidney, and widow to Thomas Ratcliffe, earl of Suffex. Dying without issue, she left 5000 *l.* and other legacies to found this college, by the name of Sidney Suffex College. But if her bequest should not be sufficient for the purpose, then it should go towards the improvement and extension of Clare Hall. Henry, earl of Kent, and John Lord Harrington, baron of Exton, executors to the foundress, at first founded ten fellowships and twenty scholarships; but, after building the college, and other expences, they found that the remainder of her legacy would not be a sufficient maintenance for so many fellows as were at first designed; and thereupon they reduced the ten fellowships to seven. Edward, the first lord Montague of Boughton, founded three scholarships; which Edward, his son and successor, desired might be reduced to two. Sir John Hart, citizen of London, founded two fellowships and four scholarships. Sir Francis Clerke, of Houghton Conquest, in Bedfordshire, founded four fellowships and eight scholarships,
erected

erected the building in the second court, and augmented the income of the foundation-scholarships. Mr. Peter Blundell, of Tiverton, clothier, founded two fellowships and two scholarships. Mr. Leonard Smith, citizen of London, founded one fellowship and one scholarship. Paul Micklewaite, D.D. and some time fellow, founded two scholarships. Mr. Downham Yeomans, of Cambridge, founded three scholarships. Mr. Samuel Taylor Dudley founded the mathematical lecture. Robert Johnson, D.D. archdeacon of Leicester, founded four exhibitions. Francis Comber, Esq. gave some exhibitions to be enjoyed by his relations, and their descendants that might be members of the college. Several of the fellowships and scholarships were augmented by the noble benefaction bequeathed by Sir John Brereton. Two exhibitions, of 12*l.* per ann. each, were given by Mr. William Bearcroft, for clergymen's orphans. The late master, Dr. Francis Sawyer Parris, bequeathed to the college his large and valuable library, together with the sum of 600*l.*

They have, therefore, seven foundation-fellowships, and ten bye-foundation-fellowships; twenty foundation-scholarships, and twenty-four bye-foundation-scholarships; beside the mathematical lecture and several exhibitions.

The college is situate on the east side of Bridge-street, and consists of two courts built of brick.

The *Chapel* has been lately re-built in an elegant manner, and, including the ante-chapel, is fifty-seven feet long and twenty-four broad.

The *Hall* is about sixty feet long, twenty-seven broad, and proportionably high; and is one of the most elegant rooms of the kind in the university. There is a beautiful bow window near the upper end, and a handsome gallery for music, supported by pillars, which forms a grand vestibule at the entrance. The ceiling and walls are neatly ornamented with fret work; and the rest of the room, with the screens, are answerable to it.

The *Library* is over part of the master's lodge and the ante-chapel, and is well furnished with books. There is a human skull perfectly petrified, or rather incrustated with a hard sandstone, except the teeth, which are white, hard, and sound, and not at all changed. It was found in the island of Crete, about ten yards below the surface, and brought into England in 1627. It was esteemed so great a curiosity, that Charles I. was desirous of seeing it; and accordingly it was sent up to the famous Dr. Harvey by Dr. Ward, then master of the college, for his majesty's inspection. It is now broken, and some of it gone.

The *Master's Lodge* is well fitted up and furnished with portraits; and the fellows have a pleasant garden, with a good and spacious bowling-green.

PRIZES. The following prizes, for the promotion of learning by means of emulation, have been established by various noble and public-spirited persons.

In 1751, the duke of Newcastle, chancellor of the university, established a premium of two gold medals, value ten guineas each, to be given to two persons, who, after having the academical honours of senior optime conferred upon them, shall be found, after a second examination before certain persons appointed by his grace, to excel in classical learning. This premium is still continued by the duke of Grafton, the present chancellor of the university.

The Hon. Mr. Finch, and the Hon. Mr. Townshend, after the example of the chancellor, gave yearly two prizes of fifteen guineas each, to two senior bachelors of arts, and the like to two middle bachelors, who shall compose the best exercises in Latin prose, which are to be read publicly by them, on a day to be appointed near the commencement by the vice-chancellor. Each candidate sends his exercise privately, and without his name, and not in his own hand, but revised and pointed by himself, to the vice-chancellor, with some Latin verse upon it; and he, at the same time, sends a paper sealed up with the same Latin verse on the outside; which paper incloses another paper folded up, with the candidate's name written within. The papers, containing the names of those candidates who do not succeed, are destroyed unopened; by which secrecy, the modesty of those who might otherwise be distressed by a repulse is effectually consulted. These prizes have also been continued by the members of parliament for the university.

Mr. Seaton, by a clause in his will, dated October 8, 1738, gave his Kislbury estate to the University of Cambridge for ever; the rents of which should be disposed of yearly by the vice-chancellor, for the time being, as he, the vice-chancellor, the master of Clare Hall, and the Greek professor for the time being, or any two of them should agree. These three persons were to give out a subject; which, for the first year, should be one of the perfections or attributes of the Supreme Being; and so the succeeding years, till the subject was exhausted; and afterwards the subject should be either Death, Judgment, Heaven, Hell, Purity of Heart, &c. or whatever else might be judged by the vice-chancellor and other two persons to be more conducive to the honour of the Supreme Being, and recommendation of virtue. And that they should yearly dispose of the rent of the above estate to that master of arts, whose poem on the subject

given should be best approved by them. Which poem was always ordained to be in English, and to be printed; the expence of which should be deducted out of the product of the estate, and the residue given as a reward for the composer of the poem, ode, or copy of verses. The estate now produces about 16 *l.* per ann.

The late reverend and learned Dr. Robert Smith, F. R. S. master of Trinity College, bequeathed, by will, two annual premiums of 25 *l.* each, to those junior bachelors of arts who shall appear, on examination, to be the best proficient in mathematics and natural philosophy.

The late Sir William Browne, Knt. M.D. by a clause in his will, directed his executors to send to the vice-chancellor annually two gold medals, each of five guineas value, to be given by him at the commencement to two under-graduates, one of whom shall deliver the best Greek ode in imitation of Sappho, the other the best Latin ode in imitation of Horace. And by a clause in his codicil, he bequeathed a third gold medal, of equal value, to be given to the under-graduate who shall produce the best Greek epigram after the model of Anthologia, and the best Latin epigram after the model of Martial. Sir William Browne also gave an annual rent charge of 20 *l.* for founding a classical scholarship: the scholar elected to remove to Peterhouse; and, in case of failure of issue from his next heir, he demised his whole real estate to the university, for founding two physic fellowships, and further encouraging classical learning.

The late John Norris, Esq. of Witton, in Norfolk, by will, dated September 22, 1768, founded a new divinity professorship, with a salary of 105 *l.* per ann.; and the Rev. John Hey, D.D. of Sidney College, was elected the first Norrishian professor, May 1, 1780. He also bequeathed a premium of 12 *l.* to the author of the best prose English essay on a sacred subject: 7 *l.* 4 *s.* of the aforesaid 12 *l.* to be expended upon a gold medal; one side representing the New Testament and the Cross, with this inscription round it, *the wisdom of God unto Salvation*; the reverse, the Resurrection, with the inscription *death is swallowed up in victory*; upon the edge, where the milling of our current coin is expressed, these words, *the Norrishian Prize*; and, if room were left, the name of the successful candidate, and the date of the year. The residue of the 12 *l.* viz. 4 *l.* 16 *s.* to be disposed of in books; which are to be, the Bible, bishop Sherlock's Discourses, 4 vols. Leland against the Deistical Writers, and Pearson on the Creed; upon the left hand cover of each book shall be pasted a copper-plate impression of one of the sides of the medal: and directed the sum of 18 *s.* to be laid out

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in books, *viz.* The New Testament, and The great Importance of a Religious Life, to be annually given to the prisoners who can read.

John lord Craven gave 50 *l.* per annum to two scholars, the best proficient in classical learning, &c. The electors are, the vice-chancellor, the five regius professors, and the orator.

William Battie, M. D. left an estate of upwards of 20 *l.* per annum, to one scholar, on a similar plan.

William Worts, Esq. formerly esquire-beadel of the university, gave two pensions of 100 *l.* per annum each, to two travelling bachelors of arts.

The Rev. John Hulse, by his will, dated 21st July, 1777, after the lapse of a great number of annuities, and the payment of several legacies and donations, bequeathed to the university a yearly revenue of about 150 *l.* for preaching and publishing twenty sermons, yearly, in vindication of the general authority, and particular evidences of Christianity; and an annuity of equal value to the former, for the establishment of a writer, who is to publish a book every year, tending to the confirmation of the doctrines, or the removal of some difficulties in Christianity. The writer is to be called the *Christian Advocate*. The remaining produce of the estate, out of which these stipends are to be paid, is to be appropriated to the founding of two scholarships in St. John's, each of which will be 40 *l.* per annum. The vice-chancellor for the time being, and the heads of Trinity and St. John's, are to have the nomination in all these appointments.

DEGREES. The students, according to their standing and proficiency in learning, are entitled to the degrees of bachelor and master of arts, bachelor and doctor in divinity, physic, and law. The time required by the statutes for studying in the university, before each can be qualified for taking the said degrees, is three years for a bachelor, and about four years more for a master of arts; seven years after that he may commence bachelor of divinity, and then five years more are required to take the degree of doctor in divinity. In law, a student may commence bachelor after six years, and in physic after five years standing: both may be proctors at the end of five years more. The proper time for conferring these degrees is called the commencement, which is always the first Tuesday in July, when the masters of arts, and doctors of all faculties, complete their degrees respectively. The examination for the degree of bachelor of arts usually begins on the Monday se'nnight after the Epiphany, and the degree is completed on the second tripos-day next following. Persons are commonly admitted to the degree of bachelors in divinity on the 11th of June. The nobility,

lity, which includes baronets, as such, are entitled to degrees without waiting the statutable time. In the year 1786, some disputes having arose concerning the practice of conferring degrees in right of nobility, the statutes were examined, and it was determined that the following persons were entitled to honorary degrees: *viz.* 1. Privy-counsellors.—2. Bishops.—3. Noblemen—Dukes, Marquisses, Earls, Viscounts, Barons.—4. Sons of Noblemen.—5. Persons related to the king by consanguinity or affinity, provided they be also honourable.—6. The eldest sons of such persons.—7. Baronets.—8. Knights. The two last to the degree of M. A. only.

SENATE. The Senate is composed of all the doctors and masters of arts in the university, and is divided into two bodies or houses. The first consists of regents, or those who have not been masters of arts five years: they are also called white-hoods, from the hoods of their official dresses being lined with white silk. The second, of non-regents, or those who have taken the degree of master upwards of five years, but have not advanced to the degree of doctor; these are called black-hoods for a similar reason. The doctors under two years standing vote solely in the regent-house; but all others, with the public orator, may vote in which house they please; and either house is competent to reject a question. In the senate-house the election of all officers takes place; the appointments of the magistrates, the admission to degrees, and all other important business of the university. No language but Latin is permitted to be spoken at any official meeting in the senate-house. Some questions are determined by the body collective, as the choice of members of parliament. At the election in 1790, the number of members who voted was 684; absent, or did not vote, 181; in all 865. The privilege of sending members to parliament was first granted to the university by James I. in 1604.

TERMS. The following is an invariable rule for the beginning and ending of the Cambridge Terms, without any exception of Sundays or holidays.

Michaelmas Term begins on the 10th of October, and ends on the 16th of December.

Lent Term begins on the 13th of January, and ends on the Friday before Palm Sunday.

Trinity Term, or (as it is more commonly called), *May Term*, begins on the Wednesday after Easter week, and ends on the Friday after the commencement.

SCHOOLS. After the universities, it may be proper to mention a few of the public schools for the education of youth, preparatory to their admission at Oxford or Cambridge, which have

have the benefit of a foundation. Some of these schools are, without impropriety, termed colleges; but they are best distinguished from those which collectively form the universities, by adhering strictly to their title; nor is there any danger, while they retain their present eminence, that they should be confounded with those inferior undertakings which are established in all parts of the kingdom for reception of those to whom a finished classical education is not necessary.

ETON. The College of Eton was founded by Henry VI. in the 19th year of his reign, anno 1440, for a provost, ten priests, four clerks, six choristers, twenty-five poor grammar scholars, and twenty-five poor men. Henry Sever was the first provost; his successor was William Waynfleet, founder of Magdalen College, in Oxford. This foundation was particularly excepted in the act for the dissolution of colleges and chantries, in the reign of Edward VI. Its establishment, however, has been somewhat altered, and it consists now of a provost, seven fellows, two school-masters, two conductors, seven clerks, seventy scholars, and ten choristers, besides inferior officers and servants.

The School is divided into upper and lower, and each of them into three classes. Each school has one master, and each master has two assistants or ushers. None are admitted into the upper school till they can make Latin verses, and have attained a tolerable knowledge of Greek. In the lower school children are admitted very young, to be initiated in school learning.

Henry VI. also founded King's College in Cambridge, and intended Eton School to be a seminary to supply it with scholars and fellows, for which purpose there is an annual election of scholars for the university, made in July or August, in this manner:—King's College in Cambridge deposes its provost, and two fellows, styled a senior and junior professor, who being joined by the provost, vice-provost, and head of Eton College, examine the scholars in the upper class in the several parts of their learning, and enter twelve, whom they find duly qualified, in the roll or nomination for the university, to be removed from Eton, as vacancies happen at King's College, and according to seniority on the roll of election. The scholar admitted at King's pursues his studies there for three years, and then is entitled to a fellowship upon that foundation. The average number of vacancies is about nine in two years: at nineteen years of age the scholars are superannuated. Eton sends two scholars to Merton College, in Oxford, where they are denominated post-masters, and has a few exhibitions of 21 guineas each for its superannuated scholars, towards whose
assistance

assistance Mr. Chamberlayne, a late fellow, has bequeathed an estate of 80*l.* per annum after the death of his widow. The independent scholars at Eton, commonly called *Oppidan*, are very numerous, this school having been long ranked among the first public seminaries in this or any other country. The average number of independent scholars, for some years past, has been from 300 to 350. When Dr. Barnard was master, under whom the school was more flourishing, perhaps, than at any other period, the number at one time exceeded 520.

A curious ancient custom of the procession of the scholars *ad montem* is deserving of notice. This procession is made every third year, on Whit Tuesday, to a *tumulus* near the Bath road, which has acquired the name of Salt Hill, by which also the neighbouring inns have been long known. The chief object of the celebration, is to collect money for *salt*, as the phrase is, from all persons present, and it is exacted even from passengers travelling the road. The scholars who collect the money are called Salt-bearers, and are dressed in rich silk habits. Tickets, inscribed with some motto, by way of pass-word, are given to such persons as have already paid for *salt*, as a security from any further demands. This ceremony has been frequently honoured with the presence of his majesty and the royal family, whose liberal contributions, added to those of many of the nobility and others, who have been educated at Eton, and purposely attend the meeting, have so far augmented the collection, that it has been known to amount to more than 800*l.* The sum so collected is given to the senior scholar who is going off to Cambridge, for his support at the university. It would be in vain, perhaps, to endeavour to trace the origin of all the circumstances of this singular custom, particularly that of collecting money for *salt*, which has been in use from time immemorial. The procession itself seems to have been coeval with the foundation of the college, and it has been conjectured, with much probability, that it was that of the *bairn* or *boy-bishop*, a mock dignity used before the Reformation, and which lasted till Innocent's day; during the intermediate time the boy performed various episcopal functions, and if it happened that he died before it was expired, he was buried with the same ceremonies which were used at the funeral of a bishop. It is said originally to have taken place on the 6th of December, the festival of St. Nicholas, the patron of children, being the day on which it was customary at Salisbury, and in other places where the ceremony was observed, to elect the *boy-bishop* from among the children belonging to the cathedral. In the voluminous collections relating to antiquities, bequeathed by Mr. Cole, (who was himself of Eton and King's College,) to the British Museum,

Museum, is a note, in which it is asserted, that the ceremony of the *bairn* or *boy*-bishop, was to be observed by charter; and that Geoffrey Blythe, bishop of Litchfield, who died in 1530, bequeathed several ornaments to King's College and Eton, for the dress of the *bairn*-bishop. From whence the industrious antiquary procured this information, which, if correct, would end all conjecture on the subject, does not appear. It is not discovered that there are any documents in support of it at King's College or at Eton, and the prerogative court at Canterbury, as well as the registries of the dioceses of London, Chester, and Litchfield, where alone there is any probability of its being registered, have been searched in vain for bishop Blythe's will. Within the memory of persons now living, it was a part of the ceremony at the *montem*, that a boy dressed in a clerical habit, with a wig, should read prayers. The custom of hunting a ram, by the Eton scholars, on Saturday in the election week, supposed to have been an ancient tenure, was abolished by the late provost, Dr. Cooke.

Eton College consists of two quadrangles. In the first is the school, the chapel, and lodgings for the masters and scholars. The other is occupied by the library, the provost's lodgings, and the apartments of the fellows. The *Chapel*, as far as relates to its external appearance, is a very handsome Gothic structure; the inside has none of that ornamental architecture, so much admired in King's College chapel at Cambridge, to which this has sometimes been compared, but is quite plain, and has been much disfigured by some injudicious alterations, which were made in the beginning of the last century, when several of the old monuments were removed, and others concealed behind the wainscot then placed at the east end, by which also was hid a Gothic altar-piece of stone enriched with niches. The whole length of the chapel is 175 feet, including the ante-chapel, which is 62 feet.

The *Library* of Eton College contains a large and valuable collection of books, having been from time to time enriched by munificent bequests, particularly by the library of Dr. Waddington, bishop of Chester, consisting chiefly of divinity; that of Mr. Mann, master of the Charter-House; that of Richard Topham, Esq. formerly keeper of his Majesty's Records in the Tower, chiefly remarkable for its fine edition of the classics; and that of the late Anthony Storer, Esq. containing a great number of early printed and rare books in various departments of literature, a fine set of Aldus's, and many scarce editions of the classics, particularly a very rare copy of Macrobius, and a large collection of engraved portraits and other valuable prints, exclusive of what had been bound up at great expence, with various

rious historical and topographical works, which formed part of his library. Mr. Topham's collection comprises also some very valuable engravings, drawings by the old masters, medals, &c. Mr. Hetherington also bequeathed the sum of 500 *l.* to be expended in books.

WESTMINSTER. The School of Westminster was founded by queen Elizabeth in 1560, for the education of forty boys, denominated the Queen's Scholars; who are taught in the best manner preparatory to the university. It is situated within the walls of the abbey, and does not occupy an entire building, the lower story being used for other purposes. It is separated into two divisions or schools, comprising seven forms or classes. Besides the scholars on the foundation, many of the nobility and gentry send their sons to Westminster for instruction, so that this establishment vies with Eton in celebrity and respectability. They have an upper and an under master, with numerous assistants. Of these masters many have been eminent in the walks of literature, but none in this, or any other seminary so celebrated as Dr. Busby. His severity of discipline forms the subject of various facetious anecdotes, and has made his name proverbial; but while England records with pride the names of her learned and able men, justice will always be done to the ability, industry, and discernment of Busby, who discovered with infinite sagacity the peculiar talents of his pupils, and with unremitting assiduity urged them forward in those paths where they were most likely to meet with fame and advantage.

WINCHESTER. The school at Winchester was founded by that liberal patron of learning, William of Wickham, who laid the first stone in 1387, and finished it in 1393, with endowments for a warden, seventy scholars, ten fellows, or perpetual chaplains, two masters, seventy scholars, three chaplains, three clerks, one organist, sixteen choristers, and other statutable servants, with exhibitions to New College, Oxford. This school also receives private scholars, and maintains a high character.

HARROW. The Free School at Harrow, which now ranks among the first public seminaries in the kingdom, was founded in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, by John Lyon, a wealthy yeoman of Preston, who had previously for many years appropriated 20 marks per ann. to teaching poor children. In 1590, two years before his death, he drew up a set of statutes for the school, with full instructions for the disposal of the estates which he intended to appropriate to various charitable uses. In these papers he mentions his intention of building a school-house, with habitations for the master and usher, and directs the sum of 300 *l.* to be expended for that purpose within three years after his decease, provided he should die without having completed this intention. The statutes are drawn up with much
attention

attention and precision, the number of forms are specified; the books and exercises for each form are chalked out; the mode of correction settled; the hours of attending school; the vacations and play-days, and the nature of the scholars' amusements, which are confined to "driving a top, tossing a hand-ball, running, and shooting." The last mentioned diversion was in a manner insisted upon by the founder, who required all parents to furnish their children with "bowstrings, shafts and breasters, to exercise shooting." It was customary, till within the last thirty years, for the scholars of Harrow to have a public exhibition of archery annually on the 4th of August, when they shot for a silver arrow. Since this custom has been laid aside, public speeches have been exhibited. The founder directs, that a competent number of poor scholars shall be educated freely, but allows the master to take other children for his profit, without any other limitation than the discretion of the governors; he adds a singular clause, that the master shall not receive any girls into the school. The sum of 20*l.* was allotted for the support of four exhibitioners, two in Gonville and Caius College at Cambridge, the others at any college at Oxford. In choosing the exhibitioners, the preference is to be given to his own kin, to natives of Harrow, "and such as are most meete for towardness, poverty, or painfulness." These exhibitions, which are held for eight years, have been raised, in consequence of the improved value of the estates, to 20*l.* per annum each. The governors were to be six in number, to have a common seal, to superintend the management of the Founder's estates, to elect the school-master and usher, the surveyors, &c.; and, jointly with the master, to make any discretionary alterations for the advantage of the school. The reputation of Harrow School was raised to a great height by Dr. Thackeray and Dr. Sumner, particularly the latter, who was an excellent classical scholar, and celebrated for the elegance of his Latin compositions; under him many of the present nobility, and some of the most distinguished characters of the age for genius and learning, received their education. The school still keeps its reputation and its numbers, which are usually upon an average about 150.

CHARTER HOUSE. The name of this establishment is derived, by an easy and evident corruption, from Chartreuse, the place in which it is situated having been a convent of Carthusian Monks, founded near Smithfield-bars, London, on a spot which served for the sepulture of 50,000 persons who died of the plague in 1372. This establishment was seized on by the gripping rapacity of Henry VIII., and the monks, who appear to have been benevolent and blameless, were treated with great indignity.

dignity and cruelty. Henry granted this first estate to John Brydges and Thomas Hale, and three years afterwards to Sir Edward North, who made compensation to the former grantees by a rent charge of 10*l.* per annum. From him it passed through various hands, until, in the reign of Elizabeth, it belonged to the Duke of Norfolk, who was attainted of high treason, but the queen restored the estate to his son, who was in high estimation with James I. In the reign of this monarch arose one of those extraordinary men, who shew that it is possible for a virtuous mind to resist all the corrupt propensities arising from unbounded wealth and uninterrupted success. This individual was Thomas Sutton, of an ancient family in Lincolnshire, who having originally a good inheritance, and having improved his property till it exceeded 80,000*l.* a vast sum in those days, distinguished his declining years by acts of benevolence and charity. On the 9th of May 1611, he purchased of the heirs of the Duke of Norfolk the Charter-House with its appurtenances for 13,000*l.* and on the 22d of June in the same year, obtained letters patent, with a licence in mortmain, to found an hospital and free school there. This admirable charity was perfected under the directions of his will; making a total expence of 20,000*l.*; and the founder left estates for its endowment valued at 4,500*l.* per annum. The hospital is a comfortable and respectable establishment for eighty friendless, unmarried old men; and although republican rapacity in the days of the rebellion diminished for a time its revenues, the same number is still maintained; they are plentifully supplied with all necessaries, except apparel, in lieu of which they receive a gown and 7*l.* per annum; they reside in handsome and well furnished apartments.

The scholars have handsome lodgings, are instructed in classical and other learning, and supplied with all the necessaries of life; and the students at the universities have an allowance of 20*l.* per annum each, for the term of eight years. The boys who are incapable of being brought up scholars, are put out apprentices, and the sum of 40*l.* given with each, and there are nine ecclesiastical preferments in the patronage of the governors. The governors are enabled, by the patent, to receive charitable donations from any person inclined to bestow them on the hospital and free school, the latter to have as many scholars as the governors choose to admit, to be under the tuition of a master and usher. Their morals and religious conduct are placed, together with that of the pensioners, &c. under the guidance of a preacher. The whole institution is governed, under certain restrictions, by a master, who is always a governor. The governors are sixteen in number, and include the King and Queen,
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the Lord Chancellor, many of the highest nobility and first officers of state.

ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL. That there was a very ancient establishment of a school at St. Paul's, London, is manifest by the charter of Richard, bishop of London, in the time of Henry I. who granted to one Hugh, the school-master, and his successors in that employment, the habitation of Durandus at the corner of the turret, (that is, the *clochier*, or bell tower), where William, dean of St. Paul's, had placed him, by his the said bishop's command; together with the custody of the library belonging to this church. The chancellor of St. Paul's was vested, not only with the direction of affairs relating to teaching at the church, but was absolute over the few who taught in London. Henry de Blois, bishop of Winchester, issued his mandate, now at St. Paul's, directing that no person should presume to teach within London, without licence from Henry, then master, except the masters of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Martin's-le-Grand, under pain of excommunication. The appointments were made by the chancellor, but the dean and chapter only could give the master possession; who was to be sober, honest, and learned; in short, one whose tenor of living would be an example for his scholars; a teacher, not only of grammar, but of virtue, "*Eis non solum grammatices, sed etiam virtutis magister.*"

Such was the ancient school, dedicated to the honour of St. Paul; and such the foundation on which Dean Colet erected the present flourishing seminary. Erasmus has afforded a minute account and description of the school, which Dr. Knight translated from the Latin, for his excellent history of the foundation, as follows: "Upon the death of his father, when, by right of inheritance, he was possessed of a good sum of money, lest the keeping of it should corrupt his mind, and turn it too much toward the world, he laid out a great part of it in building a new school, in the church-yard of St. Paul's; dedicated to the child Jesus; a magnificent fabrick, to which he added two dwelling-houses for the two several masters, and to them he allotted ample salaries, that they might teach a certain number of boys free, and for the sake of charity. He divided the school into four apartments: the first, viz. the porch and entrance, is for the catecumens, or the children to be instructed in the principles of religion; where no child is to be admitted but what can read and write. The second apartment is for the lower boys; to be taught by the second master, or usher. The third for the upper forms; under the head master. Which two parts of the school are divided by a curtain to be drawn at pleasure. Over the master's chair is an image of the child Jesus, of admirable work, in the gesture of teaching; whom all the boys,

boys, going and coming, salute with a short hymn. And there is a representation of God the Father, saying, "Hear ye Him," these words being written at my suggestion. The fourth or last apartment, is a little chapel for divine service. The school has no corners or hiding-places, nothing like a cell or closet. The boys have their distinct forms or benches, one above another. Every form holds sixteen; and he that is head or captain of each form, has a little kind of desk, by way of pre-eminence. They are not to admit all boys of course; but to choose them in according to their parts and capacities."

The wise and sagacious founder saw that the greatest hopes and happiness of the commonwealth were in the training up of children to good letters and true religion; for which noble purpose, he laid out an immense sum of money; and yet he would admit of no one to bear a share in this expence. Some person having left a legacy of 100 l. sterling towards the fabrick of the school, Dean Colet perceived a design in it; and, by leave of the bishop, got that money to be laid out upon the vestments of the church of St. Paul. After he had finished all, he left the perpetual care and over-sight of the estate, and government of it, not to the clergy, not to the bishops, not to the chapter, not to any great minister at court, but amongst the married laymen; to the Company of Mercers, men of probity and reputation. And when he was asked the reason of so committing this trust, he answered to this effect, "That there was no absolute certainty in human affairs; but, for his part, he found less corruption in such a body of citizens than in any other order or degree of mankind."

The worthy dean prefaces his statutes by expressing an ardent wish, that children should be taught regularity of conduct, and a knowledge of literature. That he might perform his part, he resolved to found this school of St. Paul's, for one hundred and fifty-three children. He appoints the Company of Mercers patrons, governors, and defenders; and for the governance of the students, a master, a sur-master, and a chaplain, with sufficient salaries, for ever.

The office of high master requiring great abilities in its possessor, he very justly defines what are the qualifications necessary: "A man whole in body, honest, and virtuous; learned in pure Latin and Greek; a man either single or married; a priest, with no benefice with cure, or any impediment which might prevent or divert his attention from the duties of his situation. Such a man is to be chosen by the Company of Mercers, in the school, during good conduct; which is to be examined into on Candlemas-day, at the school. The Mercers are forbid to permit the master's absence without their licence;

and any diffension between him and the sur-master is to be referred to the surveyors being for that year. His lodgings were to consist of the whole story over the hall and chambers, and a little middle chamber in the house roof, now called a *garret*, and a gallery, with all the cellar beneath the hall, the kitchen, and buttery. He received his furniture, and his wages were a mark per week, with a gown annually, of four nobles value; but in consequence of the improved rents of the school estates, and in consideration of the diminished value of money, this, and all the other salaries are now greatly increased. The master was indulged by the doctor with a vacation of thirty days, *conjunctim* or *divisim*. When ill of an incurable disease, or far advanced in age, he was to be dismissed with a pension of 10*l.*; but if he resigned voluntarily, a twelve month's notice was required. If the master had a hope of convalescence in illness, his salary was continued, and the sur-master officiated for him; for which he had a reasonable compensation from the high-master. Upon his demise the sur-master to be chosen in preference to other candidates. The dean bestowed his house at Stepney on the office. The attainments of the sur-master are required by the dean to be equal to those of the high-master, and he vests his appointment in that officer. The surveyors attended at the school, when the master presented his assistant to them, and they jointly charged him to execute his duty faithfully, on pain of dismissal. He lodged in the Old Change, and his salary was 6*s.* 8*d.* per week, with a gown like the high-master's. He was to dine with him, if convenient; and when decay and age rendered the sur-master unfit for the office, the worthy dean recommended him to the charity of the Company of Mercers. His notice of resignation was six months only. If both masters were ill of any contagious disorder, the founder orders the school to be shut, and the salaries of each continued. Neither of them is permitted by the statutes to enjoy lectureships or professorships.

The chaplain was to be an honest virtuous priest, appointed by the Mercers; he was also to learn, or if learned, help to teach in the school. The dean requires that the chaplain should have no preferment or other occupation; that he teach the children their catechism, and instruct them in the articles of the faith and commandments in *English*. He was to hold his office only during good behaviour, and to have but one vacation in the year, and that not without permission from the surveyors; to be clear of all diseases when chosen; but to enjoy his salary of 8*l.* during illness. His gown was valued at 26*s.* 8*d.*; and he lodged either with the master, or in the Old-chain.

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The dean permits the children admitted to be of **any** nation, and mentions that they must previously read, write, and be capable of repeating their catechisms. The high-master is permitted to receive 153 (alluding to the number of fish taken by St. Peter); with the trifling sum of four-pence, admission-money, which he orders to be given to a poor scholar who swept the school. Each child finds his own candles of wax, for those of tallow are expressly rejected.

He directs that one scholar shall preside at every form; and that the teaching commence at seven in the morning, continue till eleven, recommence at one, and terminate for the day at five; with prayers in the morning, noon, and evening.

The statutes comprize minute directions for the instruction of the children, and appoint surveyors and a renter, and give to them and some other officers their fees and salaries; and, finally, dean Colet solemnly charges the Company of Mercers to guard and promote the interests of the foundation for ever, to the utmost of their ability, as they fear the just vengeance of God for neglecting them; and to make such other regulations for the governance of the school as time and circumstances may render necessary, with the advice and assistance of good, lettered, and learned men.

To this valuable seminary belong twenty-seven exhibitions. The captain of the school leaves it at Easter, with an exhibition, which is not confined to any particular college, amounting to 40*l.* per annum for four years, and 50*l.* for three succeeding years. This is tenable with any collegiate preferment except a fellowship. Two of the exhibitions are for St. John's, Cambridge, at 10*l.* each. The Cambridge University Calendar says, p. 112., under Trinity college, "Five (exhibitions), Mr. Perry, 10*l.* per annum each, to scholars from St. Paul's school, London. If the number is incomplete, the 50*l.* is shared equally between them." And in page 78, Bene't college, "One 1781, by James Stock, esq.; patrons, the governors of St. Paul's school: value 30*l.* a year, with the accumulation during a vacancy, except 15*l.* paid to the college, appropriated to a student at St. Paul's school."

MERCHANT TAYLOR'S SCHOOL. This establishment is situated on the declivity of a hill on the eastern side of Suffolk-lane, Thames-street, London. It is a large plain brick building, with an unornamented front; and was founded by the company whose name it bears, in the year 1561. The site, called the manor of the Rose, was purchased by the company, assisted with a donation of 500*l.* from Richard Hills, who had served the office of master. The statutes of this school ordain, that 300 scholars, of which it consisted, should be educated on the following

terms,—100 for 5s. per quarter, 50 at 2s. 6d. and the remainder gratis; who were prepared for the university by the skill and attention of a master and three ushers. As many eminent and learned men have filled those situations, the institution has prospered during two centuries and a half, and will, in all probability, for ages to come. During the above long period, numbers of useful and ornamental members of society have benefitted their country through the medium of Merchant Taylor's school. The original edifice perished, with every house in the parish, by the fire of 1666, and was rebuilt with them. In describing St. John's college, Oxford, mention was made of the munificence of Sir Thomas White, in providing so many fellowships for scholars educated at Merchant Taylor's.

The above are the principal free-schools which send students to either university; but besides them there are many others founded by general benefactors in all parts of the kingdom, some of which also send students to Oxford or Cambridge; but all are for the purpose of imparting the principles of useful education. Only to enumerate these would be swelling this work with an useless catalogue, while even a moderate commemoration of the various founders and benefactors would extend beyond all reasonable bounds.

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL. But while a general enumeration of free-schools is avoided, it would be unjustifiable to pass over that of *Christ's Hospital*, commonly called the *Blue-coat-school*, which, for its antiquity, extent, and high character, demands especial notice.

This excellent foundation owes its establishment to the piety and virtue of that ornament of the British throne, Edward VI. With a mind formed for the exercise of humanity and charity, this excellent prince had the good fortune to have some persons near him who were inclined to direct and expand that disposition. In this particular instance Dr. Ridley, bishop of London, had the singular and enviable felicity of suggesting before the king, in a sermon preached at Westminster, the imperious demands of poverty upon the attention and commiseration of the powerful and rich. Those suggestions made a deep and powerful impression on the youthful sovereign, who waited with impatience for the time when he could impart in retirement the impulses of his generous mind to the worthy bishop. This moment at length arrived. The youthful monarch received the venerable prelate in his closet, and with dignified humility insisted on his being seated and covered, thanked him for his sermon, and appropriating to himself the leading subject of it, intreated directions how he should commence the great operations of charity and benevolence.

“ Truly,

“ Truly, truly,” exclaimed the good Ridley, “ I could never have thought that excellency to have been in his Grace, but that I beheld and heard it in him.” The bishop advised the king to address letters to the corporation of London, announcing his intentions, and soliciting their advice, to which he would cheerfully add his own. Sir Richard Dobbs, the lord mayor, lost no time in assembling such men as were likely, with Ridley, to forward the work of benevolence. The result of their conferences was, a general report to the king on the state and condition of the poor, and the best means of relief and reform. They were divided into three classes; the poor by impotency, by casualty, and the thriftless poor. For the innocent and fatherless, they observed they had provided Christ’s Hospital, late the Grey Friars, in London; for the wounded and diseased, the hospitals of St. Thomas and St. Bartholomew; and for the idle and vagabond, Bridewell, where they might be chastised and compelled to labour. Decayed householders, and the poor afflicted with incurable diseases, were to be relieved at their own homes.

“ Now after this good order taken,” an old author proceeds, “ and the citizens, by such means as were devised, willing to further the same, the report thereof was made to the king’s majesty, and his grace, for the advancement thereof, was not only willing to grant such as should be overseers and governors of the said houses, a corporation, and authority for the government of them; but also required that he might be accounted as the chief founder and patron thereof. And for the furtherance of the said work, and continual maintenance of the same, he, of his mere mercy and goodness, granted, that whereas, before, certain lands were given to the maintaining of the house of the *Savoy*, founded by Henry VII. for the lodging of pilgrims and strangers, and that the same was now made but a lodging for loiterers, vagabonds, and strumpets, that lay all day in the fields, and at night were harboured there, which was rather the maintenance of beggary, than any relief to the poor; he gave the same lands, being first surrendered by the master and fellows there, which lands were of the yearly value of 600*l.* unto the city of London, for the maintenance of the foundation aforesaid. And, for a further relief, a petition being made to the king’s majesty, for a licence to take in mortmain, or otherwise, without licence, lands to a certain yearly value; and a space left in the patent for his grace to put in what sum it would please him: He, looking on the void place, called for pen and ink, and with his own hand wrote this sum, 4000 marks by the year; and then said, in the hearing of his council, “ Lord, I yield thee most hearty thanks, that thou

“ hast given me life, thus long, to finish this work to the glory
“ of thy name.” After which foundation established, he lived
not above two days; whose life would have been wished equal
to the patriarchs, if it had pleased God so to have prolonged it.

This excellent young monarch made other donations for the
benefit of Christ's Hospital, and many of his subjects at different
times contributed to its perfection by liberal gifts and bequests,
and by the erection of walls, rooms, and other necessary
buildings.

The establishment at first founded, consisted only of a gram-
mar school for boys, and a separate school for girls, where they
were taught to read, sew, and mark. In addition to these
Charles II. founded a mathematical school and ward, lying on
the west part of the hospital, for the instruction of forty boys
in the mathematics, especially in that part of it that respects
navigation, and liberally endowed it with 1000*l.* a year, paid
out of the exchequer for seven years.

The mayor and corporation of London are directors and
promoters of the institution, and the whole community of
Great Britain have the valuable privilege and opportunity of
carrying on this glorious work. The contributions made
during two centuries and a half cannot be particularized, but
their effects are thus abstracted from one of the annual reports.
“ Children put forth apprentices, and discharged from Christ's
Hospital, the year last past, 194; eleven whereof, being in-
structed in the mathematics and navigation, were placed forth
apprentices to commanders of ships, out of the mathematical
school, founded by his late majesty Charles II. of blessed
memory.

Children buried the year last past, *five*.

Children now under the care and charge of the hospital, in
London and at Hertford, 1047.

To be admitted on presentations granted to this time, 140.

The names of all which, as also when and whence they were
admitted, will appear in the said hospital books.

OFFICERS. The government of this excellent charity is
committed to several officers, of whom, and the effects of their
care, the following account is given by Mr. Malcolm, in his
work called *Londinum Redivivum*.

The *President* assembles the governors to form a general
court, whose authority is delegated, when he is indisposed, to
the treasurer, for this purpose, under the direction of a com-
mittee of almoners. His functions are similar to those which
belong to every institution governed by such an officer.

The *Governor*, after his appointment, is addressed, in full
court, in the most impressive manner, and required to perform
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the duties of the station faithfully and diligently. He is reminded that he is become a distributor of the good things of the Almighty to many helpless children and others; and that any neglect or misconduct will prove him a most unworthy servant, and vitally injure the fair fame of the city of London. He is then solemnly required to promise, in presence of the assembly, that the work may be brought to perfection, and that the infants committed in some degree to his care, shall be well provided for, attended, and instructed.

The *Treasurer* receives and pays all sums appropriated to the relief and comfort of the children within the hospital; of which he keeps an account, to be inspected by the auditors at pleasure, and to whom he is to produce the cash remaining in his custody. His annual accounts are made in December, and delivered before February 10. To relieve the fatigues of this office, a *Receiver* is appointed, who acts by the Treasurer's orders. This officer is expected to render a weekly account of his transactions, or oftener if the treasurer thinks proper, who is empowered to leave any sum between 100*l.* and 1000*l.* in the receiver's hands for immediate demands, and to deliver money to him as exigencies require. The treasurer receives, within a month after his appointment, an inventory of every article used for the hospital in the custody of the clerk of the wardrobe, and of every other officer, which are indented. One part is kept by the treasurer, the other by the person "charged." From those he annually examines each article, acting as the circumstances arise. *Collectors* for the hospital are subject to his controul, and all the officers, male and female, may be reprimanded by him, or reported to a general court for any great omissions. The treasurer is not to make payments for provisions, goods delivered, or work done, before the bills are examined and signed by three members of the committee; excepting for nursing of children, pensions, wages, fees, coals, and goods purchased by wholesale, and on which a discount is made. The treasurer and two almoners order all necessaries for the children, which are, linen, woollen, shoes, stockings, caps, girdles, books, bread, meat, beer, butter, cheese, milk, coals, &c. Those are to be provided in due time and at reasonable prices. The treasurer is besides to enforce the orders of the house, summon the several committees, and to preside at them in the president's absence; and, lastly, to give notice to the court of the withdrawing any sums granted for the maintenance of the house, which appear likely to injure it.

When a Governor becomes a *Committee-man*, he receives a charge something similar to that first mentioned, and is required to attend when summoned by the president, treasurer,

or any five members, especially the monthly committees, "usual holidays excepted," and those held within six weeks after Lady-day and Michaelmas. When present, he is to examine the minutes entered by the clerk, restore omissions, and rectify errors.

A Governor, as *Auditor*, is to inquire as to the capability of gentlemen nominated for governors, whose qualifications are submitted to him by a general court. He inspects the annual general account, and others, and reports to the court the state of the hospital.

A Governor, as *Rentor*, when summoned, attends all views, and assists the treasurer and other governors with his judgment as to the value of estates or houses belonging to the hospital, and in making a true report to the next committee; assists in letting them to tenants at will, or upon lease, with due attention to the usual forms upon such occasions; and, when expedient, to order repairs, the particulars of which are entered in books, and submitted to the court. He is "to be careful that none of the hospital's leases are assigned to paupers, or other improper persons, and that no incroachment be made on any part of the hospital's estates."

A Governor, as *Almoner*, examines the qualifications of children presented for admission; and is enjoined that none are received contrary to the regulations in force; to be particularly careful that they are legitimate, and that their parents are not persons in prosperous circumstances. The almoner examines into the state of the houses in town and country, and the number of children within them, using his best endeavours that no more are admitted than can be comfortably supported by the certain revenues of the foundation, and commodiously lodged at the rate of two in a bed. He attends the visitations at the stated periods of the several schools, to be satisfied from his own observation, and from the report of the gentlemen who kindly assist in the examination of the children, that the several masters perform the duties prescribed in their several charges, and observe at convenient periods the general conduct of the children, when under the direction of the officers appointed to superintend them in the intervals between school-hours. Several of the duties of this office have already been noticed; in addition to which, the almoner visits the Great Hall occasionally, at the hours of refreshment, in order to observe whether the provisions are good, properly dressed, and clean. The wards in the same manner are subject to his inspection, for the purpose of securing proper attendance, the furnishing necessaries, and cleanliness of rooms, beds, and clothing.

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The *Almoner* assists in distributing, with benevolence and impartiality, the pensions and gifts in the disposal of the almoners, preferring the most deserving objects; and proposes to a full committee any regulations conducive to the welfare of this royal, extensive, and most useful institution.

The *Physician* on a vacancy is appointed by a general court.

The *Surgeon* attends, when summoned, all courts and committees, when children are admitted, in order to examine them, that none who have infectious disorders may be received, or that he may pronounce incurable if diseased. He is required to report any child to the almoners whom he may discover so situated after admission, to visit the hospital daily, to attend those who may meet with sudden casualties. This officer and physician are forbid to receive any other remuneration than their stated salaries.

The *Apothecary* is charged to reside constantly in the apartments assigned him at the hospital, and to attend no person whatever who is not an inmate of it. He is not to be absent one day or one night without good cause; nor then, without permission from the treasurer, or a committee of almoners. He provides, at the expence of the institution, such of the best drugs and medicines as the physician judges necessary to be used, with care, and exclusively for the hospital, the resident officers, their families and servants; attends the physician to the sick ward, and other inmates; and prepares and administers his prescriptions; and may act to the best of his judgment in that officer's unavoidable absence, provided his proceedings are submitted to him on his return as soon as possible.

The *Nurse* of the sick ward receives a solemn exhortation, exciting her to particular humanity and tenderness to the unfortunates committed to her care. She is to receive all children brought to her by the several nurses on account of indisposition or lameness; to whom she gives her best assistance till she obtains the direction of those who profess the art of healing. This person is allowed two assistants, whose wages are paid by the house; and she is required not to procure any thing for the children in addition to the usual allowance of the house, unless directed by the physician. She administers medicines prescribed, and declares their effects; obeys the orders of the *matron* as to the cleanliness and comfort of the children; and those of the *steward* for their government; and, when it can be done without disturbing the sick, or fatiguing the weak, a child is appointed to read a chapter from the bible, and that part of the form of prayer used in the house which is suited to the hour of the day. She prevents the children from playing at cards, dice, unlawful
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or hurtful games ; keeps them calm and quiet, within the wards or adjoining courts, and summonses before her, at uncertain hours, the children under her care, and those who take physic, three times daily ; calls over their names, which she delivers to the steward, noticing the absentees at each call. This nurse is never to be from her station without permission. She keeps a book, in which are registered the names of the children, when they came into her care, their leaving it, what their disorders ; and, upon a death occurring, gives notice in writing, immediately, at the counting-house. She is besides to attend divine service at Christ Church, in her blue livery, as often as the nature of her situation will admit.

The *Clerk* attends in the hospital, and enters the minutes of proceedings in different books ; one for those of the general court, another for committees, a third for the names of all children admitted, with that of their father, the parish to which he belongs, the period of admission, the name of the governor who presents, and the date and name of the parent or friend by whom a child is discharged. An apprentice book, for the name, residence and profession, with the amount of fees given to masters or mistresses with each child ; a fifth for the names of nurses in the country, their residence, how many children they keep, their names, and what is paid or due to them ; another, to record the survey of houses or lands belonging to the hospital, with the names of the Governors present at the views ; a book for estimates, in which is to be entered an account of repairs necessary for places in treaty for lease, or are advertised to be let ; a will-book, or register of bequests to the hospital ; another for benefactions ; one for plans of estates ; another for schedules of fixtures ; a book for contracts with hospital tenants, to be signed by them ; and many others, demonstrative of the extreme regularity with which business is conducted at Christ's Hospital.

The *Receiver* waits at the counting-house every day, excepting the usual holidays, from nine o'clock till three, for the purpose of paying and receiving money ; the particulars of which he enters in several books.

The *Wardrobe-keeper* and his assistant, keep an account of all the kerseys, cottons, linens, cloth, shoes, stockings, caps, &c. bought for the use of the children, and when and to whom they are delivered, which is rendered to the auditors annually. He attends at the counting-house at the above hours, to assist in the business of the day.

The office of *Collector* is understood from the name.

The children of the grammar-school are examined in the months of March and September, by an experienced person, who

who is appointed by the governors. The upper and under masters commence teaching at seven in the morning, from March 1 to November 1, and at eight the remainder of the year, dismiss the boys at eleven, begin at one, and conclude at five, or at four in the winter. No child is to be taught Latin till he can read English perfectly, and write well, the latter language grammatically. The upper master examines the under-master's highest form twice yearly, and takes thence such as he judges ready for his instructions.

A catalogue of the children, with their forms, is called over morning and afternoon, and a copy delivered at the counting-house previous to each visitation by the Committee; and the masters are required to observe the dress of their scholars as to their cleanliness, and the propriety of their demeanour, who are not to be dismissed till the bell rings for that purpose. The holidays allowed are, 11 days at Easter, including Sundays, one week at Whitsuntide, at Bartholomew tide three weeks, at Christmas 15 days, and the usual faint days, &c.

The *Catechiser* teaches the children the fundamental points of religion three times each week, and at other times visits the wards for the instruction of the inmates.

The *English Reading-master* is authorised to assemble all the children belonging to any two wards in the grammar-school, from eleven to twelve o'clock, three times a-week, in order to obtain a knowledge of their progress. By this means every child in the twelve wards is examined once in fourteen days. He may substitute for this purpose, under his own observation, any boy intended for the University; and appoints a *Marker* in the several wards, who is to observe and correct mistakes in the reading of prayers, &c. who reads himself occasionally for example. If the marker is approved of for his diligence, he receives a silver medal of the founder.

There are two *Writing-masters*, whose labours commence and terminate as before-mentioned, and *two Usbers*.

All children are admitted by order from the Committee and Treasurer, signed by the chief clerk. The masters supply the boys with necessaries for their studies at discretion, but render a half-yearly account. A committee of almoners examines the performances of boys at pleasure, and the strictest injunctions are given to prevent partiality, either voluntarily or bribed, to particular lads, who are punished by shame, more than corporal suffering, for neglect or misconduct. In other respects they are governed as in the grammar-school.

In the mathematical school, the hours for teaching are as before, and the synopsis as follows:

I. Decimal,

I. Decimal, sexagesimal, and logarithmetical, arithmetic, the extraction of roots, and first principles of vulgar fractions.

II. The usual methods of finding the golden number, epact, the moon's age, the time of her southing, and also the time of high water in any port.

III. The principles of geometry in the construction of such problems as are useful and necessary in the following articles.

IV. Plane and spherical trigonometry in the resolution of all the various cases of rectangular and oblique-angular triangles.

V. The use of the terrestrial globe in finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, their angle of position, and the distance between them.

Also the use of the celestial globe in finding the latitudes, longitudes, right ascensions, declinations, amplitudes, azimuths, and altitudes of the sun, moon, or fixed stars; together with the times of their rising, setting, and culminating.

VI. Plane-sailing; namely, the working of traverses, the resolution of all plane sailing questions; with their application to sailing in currents and turning to windward.

VII. Mercator's and middle latitude sailing, exemplified in the resolution of all the usual questions.

VIII. Projection of the sphere: and the application of spherical trigonometry in the resolution of such questions in astronomy as are necessary in finding the amplitudes, azimuths, altitudes, right ascensions, declinations, and angular distances, of the sun, moon, and fixed stars.

IX. The doctrine of parallaxes; and the method of computing their effects on the altitudes and angular distances of celestial objects.

X. The use of instruments proper for observing the altitudes, azimuths, and angular distances, of the sun, moon, and stars; such as the quadrant, and amplitude, and azimuth, compass; with the use of the observations in finding the variation of the compass, the latitude a ship is in, as well from the meridional altitudes of the sun, moon, and stars, as by means of two altitudes of the sun, and the time which elapses between the observations; also in finding the longitude of the ship by a time-keeper, and by the observed distance of the moon from the sun or a fixed star.

XI. The use of the plane and Mercator's charts.

XII. The use and application of the preceding article in the actual working of days' works, and correcting the dead reckoning by the observations.

Ten boys, who are upon the Royal foundation, must be qualified annually (in the opinion of the master and wardens of the Trinity House), for the sea-service; but the master of the school

school is permitted to enter his protest against any boy admitted or recommended who is not fit by the age of sixteen. Before boys are received on the Royal, or Mr. Stone's foundations, they must have proficiency in the English language, write well, and have proceeded to the Rule of Three in arithmetic. The first class of the grammar-school are assembled on Tuesday afternoon, and instructed in the mathematics.

The *Drawing-master* attends on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, from one till five in the summer, and four in the winter, to instruct the boys upon the Royal, Stone's, and Stock's foundation; and any others that may be sent by the proper officers from the writing or grammar schools. This master has power to reject boys whose talents appear insufficient for excellence.

The *Reading-master's* employment needs no detail.

The *Musick-master* teaches from one to three o'clock, Tuesdays and Saturdays, and attends at the hall at publick suppers on Sundays.

The *Steward* is charged to prevent children eating in the wards, unless by express permission from the treasurer. He attends at breakfast, dinner, and supper, in the hall, at the ringing of the bell, where the children assemble, thoroughly washed, cleaned, and combed. He prevents the children from wearing any other clothes than those given by the hospital, except a pair of shoes, one shirt, and a pair of breeches, at the charge of their parents or friends, at first coming. He attends them to Christ's Church on Sundays to morning and evening service, and on saints and other public days, when he observes their behaviour, and enforces silence and attention. He prevents the boys from leaving the bounds of the hospital, by frequently calling them together at unexpected hours, and corrects absentees. If a boy elopes for the whole or part of a day, he receives publick chastisement in the hall, and is confined the next holiday to his ward. Those who have leave of absence, and return too late, are reported by the nurse to the steward, who gives the names to the treasurer; and if the nurse notices any repeated offence against these rules, or a boy loses or destroys his clothes, the steward is required to expel him, till he can obtain re-admission from the committee of almoners. The remainder of this officer's duty may readily be imagined.

From March to November the boys rise at six and breakfast in the hall, seven go to school, eleven return, twelve dine, one return to school, five return, six sup, eight go to bed. Those hours are varied in winter.

The remaining offices of matron, nurses, cooks, cobblers, porters, and four beadles, are conducted by rules calculated to insure cleanliness and health, propriety of conduct, and happiness.

ness to all parties; but their particular duties are so well known, that an abstract of them would rather fatigue than entertain the reader.

The exhibition of drawings and specimens of writing takes place in the hall. Each boy is seated at the tables with his performances before him. Many of the latter are of superlative excellence, and the worst would procure the writer a situation in the most fastidious merchant's counting-house. The drawings exhibited are generally well performed, in good perspective and clearly coloured, and certainly full as much so as any, *produced within a school*, can be.

The publick-supper is a grand spectacle: a table extends up the midst of the hall, and there are others on the sides, which are covered with clean white cloths, neat wooden platters, and little wooden buckets for beer, with butter, grace the board. At the south end, either the President or the Treasurer, with such Governors as it may suit to be present, are seated; and behind them such visitors as obtain tickets of admission. The masters of the school, with the matron and the steward, attend at the upper-end; and the nurses of each ward preside at the tables, on which are a great number of candles, which, with many patent lamps and a large lustre, form the light of the hall.

The ceremony of the evening commences by three strokes with a mallet, which produces a most profound silence. A youth then reads from the pulpit a chapter from the scriptures. During prayers the boys stand; and the response *Amen*, pronounced by about 800 youthful voices, has a most extraordinary effect. A psalm, or hymn, is sung by the whole assembly in unison, accompanied by the organ. Such is the modulation and restraint of the voices, that, though numerous enough to deafen the hearer, the sounds ascend in powerful yet gentle strains to the Throne of Mercy, for blessings on the founders and benefactors. Indeed, the harmony would be complete, were it not for the unpleasant *f* that hisses through our language, which is particularly perceivable in the hymn sung by the boys of Christ Church, and may perhaps be unavoidable.

When supper is concluded, the doors of an adjoining ward are thrown open, and the spectators are invited to view it; after which the wards pass before the President and Governors in procession, in the following order: The nurse; a boy carrying two lighted candles; others with the bread-baskets and trays; and the remainder of the members of the ward in pairs; who all bow before the President.

Besides the establishment in London, considerable numbers of the younger children are maintained in the country at Hertford, and at Ware in the same county; at each place is a school-

school-master with a proper salary; and the children, when sufficiently grown and instructed, are brought to the school in London. At Ware is a fine building, like a college, making a large quadrangle, for boys, containing a school-house and a master's house, and thirteen houses for nurses to keep the children. Sir Jonathan Raymond, Knight, formerly Alderman of London, bought and gave them a field near adjoining to play in. At Hertford are also a school-house, and a master's house, and twenty houses more, each with two rooms on a floor, and gardens belonging.

The revenues of this most noble charity are, as they ought to be, very ample, being increased by the donations and testamentary benefactions of many generous and pious individuals. The Governors have also a duty of three farthings on every piece of cloth brought to Blackwell-hall. Of late years, a resolution has been adopted to re-build the hospital by degrees, it being found altogether decayed and ruinous, and to prevent the reduction of the establishment by this inevitable expence, a large, though as yet insufficient sum, has been subscribed.

CHARITY SCHOOLS. Far inferior to the free schools, in rank and in extent of education bestowed, are the establishments now found in almost every parish in England, where children of both sexes, either by the benevolence of individuals, or at the publick expence, are taught to read, write, and sew; and thus qualified, at a proper age, to be received as apprentices or servants by respectable persons, with a prospect of advancing themselves in life, according to their ability and industry. These children are generally clothed in a plain decent uniform; in some schools they are, and in others they are not, boarded and lodged; but perhaps no institutions could, on the whole, be conceived more honourable or beneficial to the nation, than those which at once favour early habits of application, supply useful knowledge, and impart the rudiments of the protestant religion. Once in every year, on Ascension day, the charity children educated in the metropolis and its immediate vicinity, go in a body through the principal streets to the Cathedral of Saint Paul; they are clean and newly clothed, their countenances beaming with health and cheerfulness, the effect of rational industry and temperate plenty; the sight always interests the publick curiosity, and callous indeed must that heart be which does not experience the truest satisfaction in the contemplation of this most dignified and honourable national procession. In these schools, in the metropolis alone, it is reckoned that 9000 children are instructed; and this number is exclusive of those received into free schools, who are estimated at 5000; of the children of dissenters, Jews, and others, who have establishments of

of their own, and of the private schools established in all parts of the kingdom for the education of young people in consideration of an annual stipend, and which, in and within a few miles of the metropolis, are said to be 3730.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS. For the instruction of those whose time is devoted, during the week, to the pursuits of industry, some pious and benevolent persons have, of late years, formed and superintended Sunday Schools, which are established in many parishes, and where the children gain the rudiments of religion, and some other knowledge. To further the purposes of these undertakings, a society is formed, under the denomination of the *Sunday School Society*, the members of which have by subscription raised a fund, which is employed in the purchase of bibles and religious books, and otherwise promoting the great end of Sunday Schools.

Such is the outline of the provision made by law, bounty, or custom, for the communication of early instruction; but in England there are, besides, many expensive and honourable establishments for the diffusion of knowledge, and for the promotion of art, and reward of artists, some of which are to be particularly noticed.

ROYAL SOCIETY. The origin of this most learned, respectable, and useful body, is ascribed to the honourable Robert Boyle, and Sir William Petty, who, together with Seth Ward, Wilkins, Wallis, Goddard, Willis, Bathurst, and Wren, doctors of divinity and physick, and Matthew Wren, and Mr. Rook, frequently met in the apartments of Dr. Wilkins, in Wadham College, Oxford. This party of studious friends, while at Oxford, were not only eminently distinguished at home for their learned productions, but likewise highly revered by the Literati abroad. The Society continued at Oxford till 1658, when the members were called to various parts of the kingdom, on account of their respective functions, and the majority coming to London, they constantly attended the astronomical and geometrical lectures at Gresham College, where being joined by several persons of the greatest learning and distinction, they continued to meet there once or twice a week till the death of Oliver Cromwell, when the college was for a time converted into a barrack, or military quarter, for the reception of soldiers.

But this storm being dispelled by the restoration, the society began to resume their meetings; and for the more effectual carrying on their great and laudable design, to purchase instruments for the performing experiments, and to defray their necessary expences, they bound themselves by a written obligation.

The king, willing to encourage so honourable and useful an enterprise, as a distinguishing mark of his affection for the society, by his letters patent of the 22d of April, 1663, constituted them a body politic and corporate, by the appellation of the *President, Council, and Fellows, of the Royal Society of London, for improving Natural Knowledge*.

By this charter, in which the king declares himself their founder and patron, the president, council, and fellows, are empowered to have a common seal; and to break, change, and renew it at pleasure. And his majesty, in testimony of favour and esteem, granted a *coat of arms* to them and their successors, viz. On a field argent, a canton of three lions of England; for a crest, an eagle proper, on a ducal coronet, supporting a shield charged with the lions aforesaid; and for supporters, two talbots with coronets on their necks.

For the good government of the society, the charter establishes, that the council shall consist of twenty-one persons (the president always to be one); and, that all persons who, within two months next ensuing the date of the said charter, shall be chosen by the said president and council; and in all times after the said two months by the president, council, and fellows, and noted in a register to be kept for that purpose, shall be fellows of the said society, and so accounted and called during life, except by the statutes of the said society to be made, any of them shall happen to be amoved.

They were also licensed to meet in any part of the metropolis they might think fit, to make and alter laws for their own regulation, and to build, according to their discretion, for the use of the society. And it was further provided, that if any abuses or differences should arise about the government or affairs of the society, whence its constitution, progress, improvement, or business might suffer, or be hindered; in such cases his majesty assigned and authorized the archbishop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, or keeper of the great seal, the lord high treasurer of England, the keeper of the privy seal, the bishop of London, and the two principal secretaries of state for the time being, or any four or more of them, to compose and redress any such differences or abuses.

The statutes which were afterward framed, and approved by the king, established the affairs of the society on a more respectable and prudent footing. Their principal provisions were that each fellow should sign an obligation promising to promote the good of the society, attend its meetings, and observe its statutes, with a proviso that any one may withdraw on giving notice in writing to the president. Each member pays an admission fee of five guineas, and is subject to an annual pay-

ment of two guineas and a half, unless he redeems it by paying at once thirty-one guineas.

The ordinary meetings are held once a week; on Thursdays; and by the statutes none can be present beside the fellows, without the leave of the society, under the degree of a baron in one of his majesty's three kingdoms, or of his majesty's privy council, or unless he be an eminent foreigner, and these only with the leave of the president. The business of the weekly meetings is, to order, take account, consider, and discourse of philosophical experiments and observations; to read, hear, and discourse upon letters, reports, and other papers, containing philosophical matters; as also to view and discourse upon the productions and rarities of nature and art; and to consider what to deduce from them, or how they may be improved for use or discovery. The experiments are then to be made at the charge of the Society; two curators at least are to be appointed for the inspection of those which cannot be performed before the society; and whose report of matter of fact shall be stated and returned.

The election of Fellows is made by ballot; and their admission by a solemn declaration from the president of their election; but this regulation not being deemed effectual to prevent persons unqualified from being chosen members of the society; a new statute was made, ordaining, that every person for the future (not a peer, or foreigner of distinction), desiring to be admitted a fellow, must be recommended by an attestation under the hands of three, or more members, setting forth his name, place of habitation, his qualifications, works, and productions; which is to be put up in the assembly-room at ten several meetings, to give each member an opportunity of inquiring into the character of the candidate before they proceed to ballot. But all peers of Great Britain and Ireland, and their sons, together with all foreign princes and ambassadors, are eligible, at the recommendation of one member, and to be elected as soon as proposed.

The election of the council and other officers is made once a-year; eleven of the existing council being continued by lot for the next year, and ten new ones chosen in like manner. Out of this new council are elected a president, treasurer, and two secretaries, in the same way.

The *President* presides in all meetings, regulates all debates of the society and council; states and puts questions; calls for reports and accounts from committees, curators, and others; summons all extraordinary meetings upon urgent occasions, and sees to the execution of the statutes. The *Vice-President* has the same power in the absence of the president.

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The *Treasurer*, or his deputy, receives and keeps accounts of all money due to the society. He pays small sums by order of the president under his hand; but those that exceed five pounds by order of the council. All bills of charges for experiments must first be signed by the curators. The accounts of the treasurer are audited four times a-year, by a committee of the council, and once a-year by a committee of the society.

The *Secretaries* take notes of the orders and material passages of the meetings; take care of the books, papers, and writings of the society; and direct the clerks in making entries of all matters in the register and journal-books of the society, or council; draw up such letters to be written in their name, which must be approved at one of their meetings; and give notice of the candidates propounded in order to election.

The *Curators*, by office, have a sufficient allowance for their encouragement not exceeding 200*l.* a-year. They must be well skilled in philosophical and mathematical learning; well versed in observations, inquiries, and experiments of nature and art. They take care of the managing of all experiments and observations appointed by the society, or council, and report the same, and perform such other tasks as the society or the council appoint; such as the examining of sciences, arts, and inventions now in use, and the bringing in histories of natural and artificial things, &c. They must be proposed a month at least before they are chosen, and examined by the council before the election, to which every member of the society must be summoned. They are at first only chosen for a year of probation, (except they be of known merit): At the end of that time, they may be either elected for perpetuity, or for a longer term of probation, or wholly rejected. The causes of ejecting a curator, are the same with ejecting a fellow, or for fraudulent dealing, and negligence in the affairs of the society, provided that he shall first receive three respective admonitions. If any curator shall be disabled by age, infirmity, or casualty, in the service of the society, some provision shall be made for him during life, if his condition requires it, according as the council shall think fit.

The *Clerk* constantly attends all meetings, follows the directions of the secretaries, in registering and entering all matters appointed; and must not communicate any thing contained in their books, to any that is not a fellow. He is allowed by the statutes a certain rate for what he copies, and a yearly stipend for his allowance.

The *Printer* is to take care for the printing all books committed to him by order of the society, or council; and therein he shall observe their directions, as to the correction of the edition, the number of copies, the form, or volume, and other particulars.

The society publish an annual volume in two parts, under the name of *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*. Of these the number is very considerable, and the collection is considered a most valuable treasury of progressive information.

The statutes make further provision, in several minute particulars, respecting officers and other objects, and declare, that the *causes of ejection* shall be contemptuous disobedience of the statutes and orders of the society, or malicious defaming the same. This shall be declared by the president at one of the meetings, and the ejection recorded.

The society being thus established, men of all ranks and professions vied in promoting its designs, by communicating every thing within their power relating to natural and artificial discoveries. Charles II. presented them with a stately gilt silver mace, to be carried before the president. And, as a further proof of his sincere attachment, by his letters patent of the 8th April, 1667, gave them Chelsea College, with its appurtenances, and twenty-six, or twenty-seven acres of land surrounding; but the society not having converted part of it into a physic garden as was intended; and the king having resolved to erect an hospital for old and maimed soldiers, purchased it back on the 8th of February, 1681, for the sum of 1300 *l*.

On their removal from Gresham College, the Royal Society purchased a house in Crane-court, Fleet-street, where they long flourished; but when Somerset-house was converted into a public building, his Majesty was pleased to assign to them a spacious and commodious suite of apartments, which they now occupy.

The museum of this Society, is a collection worthy its character; and the library is furnished with a large and valuable stock of the best authors.

On this excellent and useful Society, Voltaire, who is not, in general, fond of praising the English, makes the following observations in his *Age of Louis XIV.*: “To this illustrious Society the world is indebted for the late discoveries relating to light, the principles of gravitation, the motion of the fixed stars, the geometry of transcendent qualities, and a hundred other discoveries, which, in this respect, might justly denominate the age we speak of, to be the age of the English, as well as the age of Louis the XIV.” And, in 1666, the great Colbert, emulous of this glory of England, advised Louis XIV., at the request also of several men of learning, to establish the French Academy of Sciences, which, in 1669, became an incorporated body like ours of London, as sundry others have since been in other countries of Europe.

The great purpose of this Society, another author observes, is to make faithful records of all the works of nature and art, which

which can come within their reach; that the present age and posterity may distinguish error strengthened by prescription, restore truths neglected, apply those known to more various uses, and make the way more easily to what remains unrevealed in all useful, and more particularly in all commercial sciences, which is the life and soul of these kingdoms. This is the compass of their design, and these great ends they have so far answered, as to have proved of unspeakable emolument to mankind in general, as well as Great Britain in particular: and those nations of Europe that have followed their laudable example, have likewise been of great service to the Society, as well as to their native states and empires. As for what belongs to the members themselves that constitute this society, they are of different religions, countries, and professions. For they did not propose to lay the foundation of an English, Scotch, Irish, Popish, or Protestant philosophy, but a philosophy of mankind. A most glorious and most benevolent attempt, and attended with the most glorious and benevolent consequences! By their naturalizing, as it were, men of all countries, they have settled a constant intelligence throughout all civilized nations, and made the Royal Society of England the general bank and free port of the whole world, for sound knowledge and philosophy grounded on experiments, not on visionary hypothesis and conjecture, as was before their happy institution. And by the admission of men of all professions, these two benefits have arisen: 1. Every art, and every way of life have been secured from receiving detriment by their joint councils. 2. By the equal balance of all professions, no one in particular has by this society overweighed the other, or made the oracle speak their private sense only. All ranks of men have some one darling on which their care is fixed. If mechanics alone were to make a philosophy, they would bring it all into their shops, and force it to consist wholly of springs, wheels, and weights; if physicians, scarcely any thing would be considered beside the cure of diseases. So much is to be found in men of all conditions of that which is called pedantry in scholars; which is an obstinate addiction to the forms of some private life, and too regardless of general things. But, though the Society entertains men of particular professions, yet the far greater number are gentlemen, free and unconfined. This has prevented, in a great measure, two corruptions of learning complained of: the one, that knowledge still degenerates to consult present profit too soon; the other, that philosophers have been always masters and scholars; some imposing, and all the others submitting, and not as equal observers without dependence. The first of these was, before the establishment of this corporation, the cause of much inconvenience.

nience. It weakened the strength of useful arts; it made an unhappy disproportion in their increase; while not the best, but the most gainful of them flourished. But, above all, it diminished that very profit for which men strive; and so they were served like some foolish guards, who, while earnest in picking up small money dropt out of the prisoner's pocket, let the prisoner escape for whom they might have got a great ransom. A second error that has been avoided by this Society, is, that the seats of knowledge have since their time been laboratories, as they ought to be; not only schools, where some have been taught, and all the rest subscribed.

SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES. Research into the history, beauties, defects, and properties of those objects which have survived the ravages of time, has always been a favourite pursuit of the liberal and enlightened. These dumb witnesses, of whatever materials composed, speak with irrefutable certainty of the manners, customs, and habits of the ages in which they were formed, and enable those who examine them to form an unerring judgment on matters connected with the history of those times.

Societies for the prosecution of these studies have been formed in ancient as well as modern times, and have been often desired and attempted in England. Sir H. Spelman speaks of a Society of Antiquaries in his time, to whom his treatise on the terms, written in the year 1614, was communicated, he himself being one of the number. The society was founded in 1572, by Archbishop Parker, Camden, Sir Robert Cotton, Stowe, and others. Application was made, in 1589, to Queen Elizabeth for a charter, and house wherein they might hold their meetings, and erect a library; but by the death of that Princess their application proved abortive. Her successor, James I., was far from favouring their design. In 1717, this society was revived, since which time no interruption has happened; and, in 1751, it received its charter of incorporation from George II.

In this instrument, his Majesty declares, that whereas the study of antiquity, and the history of former times, has ever been esteemed highly commendable and useful, not only to improve the minds of men, but also to incite them to virtuous and noble actions, and such as may hereafter render them famous and worthy examples to late posterity; therefore the King, out of his princely affection to all sorts of learning and good literature, and for the encouragement of all such as shall be desirous to promote so laudable an undertaking, granted that there shall be for ever a society, to be called the *Society of Antiquaries of London*; of which society the king declared himself the founder and patron: and that it should consist of a president, council, and fellows,

fellows, who, by the name of the president, council, and fellows of the Society of Antiquaries of London, should for ever be a body politic and corporate; and by that name and style have perpetual succession; and use a common seal, which they may make anew and change from time to time as they may find occasion. In this corporate capacity, they may sue and be sued, purchase real estates not exceeding in annual value 1000*l.*, without licence of alienation in mortmain, and make bye-laws.

The *Council* consists of twenty-one members, of whom the president is one. The first council was nominated in the charter, which provided that they should continue in office till the 23d of April then next, and until other persons should be elected in their room. Twelve of them were empowered within two months to elect persons who should be fellows of the society. "And, by how much any persons," the charter says, "shall be more excelling in the knowledge of antiquities, and history of this and other nations; by how much the more they are desirous to promote the honour, business, and emoluments of this society; and by how much the more eminent they shall be for piety, virtue, integrity, and loyalty; by so much the more fit and worthy shall such persons be judged of being elected, and admitted into the said society."

The president, council, and fellows, or any fifteen or more of them, are empowered annually, on the 23d of April, to elect a *President*, for one year; but, if he should die within that time, nine or more of the council may elect one to serve in his stead, till the ensuing 23d of April.

If any other member of the *Council* should die or be removed, which, for misdemeanor or other reasonable cause, they may by the president and rest of the council; then the whole society, or twenty-one or more of them, may choose others to supply the deficiency, who are to remain in office till the following 23d of April. On that day in every year, the whole body of the society nominate eleven persons of the existing council to be continued for the ensuing year, and appoint ten others of the society to be their coadjutors.

The president may also appoint four of the council to be *Deputy-presidents*, to officiate for the president in case of sickness or absence; but, if four are appointed, the senior of them always acts.

The *bye-laws* are directed to be made by the whole body, at a meeting where at least twenty-one shall be present, and they may form such statutes, rules, orders, bye-laws, and constitutions, as shall appear to them to be good, useful, honest, and necessary, for the encouragement, advancement, and furtherance

of the study and knowledge of antiquities, and history of this and other countries; the government, regulation, and direction of the said society, and their estate, goods, lands, revenues, and business; and the particular manner of the election, choice, admission, and amoval of all and every the members and officers thereof.

The society are also empowered to appoint treasurers, secretaries, clerks, and officers, one serjeant at mace, and such other servants as may be necessary and useful; to attend upon the president, or his deputy, on all proper occasions; or to do such other things as may be expedient.

And if any abuses or differences happen, concerning the government or affairs of the society, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, or Lord-keeper, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Secretaries of State, are nominated *visitors* of the society; with full power and authority to them, or any three or more of them, to compose and redress any such differences or abuses.

In pursuance of this charter, the society have formed a series of useful statutes. By them all the fellows subscribe an *obligation*, binding themselves to promote to the utmost of their power, the honour and interest of the society, and to observe its statutes.

If any fellow shall signify to the president, or his deputy, under his hand, that he desires to *withdraw* from the society, he shall from that time be free from any future payments.

The *payments* are five guineas for an admission fee, unless it is remitted; two guineas annually, for the assurance of which a bond is given in the penalty of 30 *l.*, but which may be compounded at once by a payment of twenty-one guineas. A list of persons in arrear is directed to be publicly read at four meetings, and at all other meetings laid on the table for perusal of the fellows. The prints or other works of the society shall be delivered only to such fellows, who, at the time of delivery, shall not be in arrear more than twelve months of their annual contribution; and if any person shall, at the annual audit of the accounts, be found more than two years contribution in arrear, it shall be in the power of the president and council, at their discretion, to put the bond before mentioned in execution; giving such notice as they shall think proper. Nor can any member who is in arrear more than twelve months of his annual contribution, give a vote at the election of president, council, and officers.

The ordinary *meetings* of the society are weekly, on Thursdays, beginning about seven of the clock in the afternoon, and continuing until nine; unless the major part of the fellows present shall,

shall, for that time, resolve to rise sooner, or sit later. In these ordinary meetings, in the absence of the president and deputy, or vice-presidents, if five or more members meet, the senior fellow in nomination then present shall preside. At these meetings fellows may introduce two visitors.

Votes are taken by ballot; and five members may proceed to business, except where the charter requires a greater number.

Every person to be *elected* a fellow, must be proposed and recommended at a meeting by three or more members, either upon their personal knowledge of him, or on his being known to the society by his works; which members shall then deliver to one of the secretaries a paper, signed by themselves with their own names, specifying the name, addition, profession, and chief qualifications of the candidate for election, and also the usual place of his abode; which paper, with the date of the day when delivered, shall be fixed up, and remain in the common meeting room of the society at four several ordinary successive meetings, before the said candidate shall be put to the ballot; which four meetings shall be exclusive of the day when he is propounded, and the day when he is ballotted for. And as persons of high rank and dignity become an honour and advantage to any society; any peer of Great Britain and Ireland, or the eldest sons of such peers, or any of his Majesty's Privy-council, or Judges of either kingdom, may be propounded by a single member; and put to the ballot for election the same day, a competent number for electing members being present; and the election shall, in all cases, be determined by a majority of two-thirds of the votes of the members present, and balloting on the occasion. If any person, after being elected, fails to pay his admission fee of five guineas, within the next four succeeding meetings of the society (the day of his election not to be reckoned one), his election is void, and the secretary of the society, immediately after every election, sends notice to the member elected, with a copy of the preceding clause. The manner of *admission* is, that at some meeting after the fellow has paid his admission fee, and signed the obligation, the president or his deputy, taking him by the hand, says these words: "I do, by the authority, and in the name of the Society of Antiquaries of London, admit you a fellow thereof."

The statutes also regulate with great exactness the form of balloting for president and officers; the duty of president; and the keeping of the common seal.

Members may be expelled from the society by ballot, and the causes are thus declared: "If any fellow of the society shall contemptuously, or contumaciously disobey the statutes or orders of the society; or shall, by speaking, writing, or printing,
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“ ing, publicly defame the society; or advisedly and malicious-
 “ ly do any thing to the damage and detriment thereof; he
 “ shall be liable to be expelled.”

Every *Benefactor* to the society is to have his name registered in the catalogue of the benefactors, with the mention of his gift; and every benefactor, who shall present the society with any sum of money, or gift to the value of twenty pounds, or more, upon acceptance thereof by the society, shall have the privilege of being present at the weekly meetings of the society.

Foreigners of note, or learning, may be admitted *honorary* and *corresponding members*, without being subject to any contributions.

The statutes also provide for the due management of the revenues of the society. The publication of drawings and papers communicated is also carefully provided for, and these are, as often as the council think fit, collected in volumes, under the title *Archæologia*.

The Society of Antiquaries possess a library, the books in which may, on proper application, be lent to the fellows; but many prudent precautions are adopted to prevent an abuse of this permission.

By the bounty of the King, this society has excellent *apartments* in Somerset-house, contiguous to those of the Royal Society.

BRITISH MUSEUM. Sir Hans Sloane may, with truth, be pronounced the founder of this great receptacle of every thing valuable, which must ultimately vie with, if not exceed, every museum of the kind in Europe; but it would be injustice in thus mentioning Sir Hans, not to revert to a predecessor of greater liberality, who *gave* his invaluable collection to the public; this was Sir Robert Cotton. Sir Hans *offered* his books, and other articles, to the public for 20,000 *l.*; and the purchasers, who were the Legislature, found it necessary to provide a place for their reception. Fortunately, Montague-house, one of the largest mansions in the metropolis, was obtained at the critical moment. Hence the origin of the foundation, which has received adventitious aids almost annually, by gifts, bequests, and purchases, of every species of curiosity, in animals, vegetables, fossils, minerals, sculpture, &c. &c. and literature, to the present moment. The trustees who conduct the concerns of the institution, are uniformly men of talents, fortune, and rank; consequently every endeavour is constantly made to forward its interests, and the honour of the nation. Those gentlemen have the appointment of the various officers, who preside over the several departments; and on their care and judgment depend all the arrangements necessary to secure the safety and cleanliness

cleanliness of the various objects intrusted to their care, and the due accommodation of those who have occasion to examine them.

An annual return is made to the legislature by the trustees of all money transactions; and sums are in general voted annually for the temporary wants of the museum.

It is not possible to give an account of all the objects of literature and art in this repository; but a slight enumeration of some of the principal collections, and the means by which they were accumulated, may be attempted.

The *Harleian Library* contains 7000 MSS. which were bought by the Right Honourable Secretary Harley; and that noble collection of Sir Simon D'Ewes, which is much rarer. There are abundance of ancient manuscripts, books, charters, &c. some in Saxon, others of high antiquity, which give great light into history. There are all John Stowe's collection; several original ledger-books, coucher-books, and cartularies of monasteries in this kingdom; as Bury St. Edmund's, St. Alban's, and other religious houses. This collection, in some particulars, exceeds any in England, and is the greatest treasury of its kind in the kingdom. There are, beside, many valuable manuscripts and printed books.

In April 1767, an act was passed to enable the trustees to sell or exchange any duplicates of books, medals, coins, &c. &c., and to purchase others in their places.

In 1772, the House of Commons voted 8410 *l.* for purchasing antiquities brought from Italy, and 840 *l.* to provide a proper receptacle for them.

And in 1804, 16,000 *l.* for building additional galleries and apartments for Egyptian and other articles, that are already and may be hereafter given.

One of the first gifts to the public after the establishment of the institution, was the legacy of Colonel Lithieullier, consisting of a curious collection of Egyptian antiquities; to which Pitt Lithieullier, Esq. nephew to the Colonel, added several antiquities, which he himself had collected during his residence at Grand Cairo.

And as an addition to the Cotton Library, Mrs. Maddox, relict to the late Mr. Maddox, historiographer royal, left by her will her husband's large and valuable collection of manuscripts, which had engaged his attention many years.

Major Edwards bequeathed many books; and 7000 *l.* after the decease of Elizabeth Mills; and the trustees acquired the collections of Dr. Birch.

In 1760, Mr. Da Costa presented them with Hebrew manuscripts; since when numberless gifts have been made; one of
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the principal of which was that of the Rev. Dr. Cracherode of the *Principes Editiones* of the Greek and Roman classics.

The *Cottonian Library* was collected by the indefatigable industry and excellent judgment of Sir Robert Bruce Cotton, who was born in 1570, and died in 1662. This inestimable treasury of knowledge, after being with difficulty rescued from the fury of the republicans during the interregnum, was secured to the public in 1700 by a statute entitled "An act for the better settling and preserving the library kept in the house at Westminster, called Cotton House, in the name and family of the Cottons, for the benefit of the public." This act, after doing ample justice to Sir Robert Cotton, for forming a most valuable collection of manuscripts, papers, and records, of great use and service for the knowledge and preservation of our Constitution in Church and State, and generally esteemed the best of its kind any where extant, and reciting, that the same had been carefully preserved, and much augmented and enlarged by Sir Thomas the son, and Sir John the grandson, of the said Sir Robert Cotton, declares, "That the said Sir John Cotton, in pursuance of the desires and intentions of his father and grandfather, is content and willing that his mansion-house and library should continue in his family and name; and that it be kept and preserved by the name of *The Cottonian Library*, for public use and advantage."

After this preamble, so honourable to the collectors, and so decisive in favour of the utility and importance of the collection, the statute enacts, that after Sir John Cotton's death, the said library, together with his mansion-house and its appurtenances, be vested in trustees; the house for the use of the descendants of Sir Robert Cotton, the founder, for ever; and the library to be carefully preserved for the public use, without suffering any alienation or embezzlement whatever.

The first concern of the trustees appointed by the act, was to cause the library to be carefully inspected, in order to ascertain and identify its contents; that they might render the keeper, whom they were to appoint to the care of it, responsible for the security of the same. For this purpose, they named Matthew Hutton, John Anstis, and Humphrey Wanley, three of the most eminent antiquaries of those days, to examine carefully into the state of it. Their report is dated June 22, 1703; in which they state the receptacle for the books to be a bad one, defects in the catalogue, and that some of the books were decaying.

The solicitude of the legislature to have this important collection effectually secured for the use of the public, induced them, soon after, to frame a new statute, intituled, "An act for
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“ the better securing her Majesty’s purchase of Cotton House, “ in Westminster ;” in which, after reciting that the library, in its present situation, was by no means in the state of security nor of the degree of utility it was intended to be, it was provided, that, to the intent so great a treasure of books and manuscripts, so generously given for the public service, might not remain any longer useless ; and that it might be in her Majesty’s power to make this most valuable collection useful to her own subjects, and to all learned strangers ; an agreement had been made with Sir John Cotton, grandson to the donor, for the purchase of the inheritance of the house where the library was deposited, for the sum of 4500*l.*; which purchase could not have been made without an act of Parliament, the preceding act concerning this library having directed that the house should not be sold or alienated, enacts, that the said house be henceforth vested in the Queen, her heirs and successors for ever.

The library was removed in 1712, to Essex House, Essex-street, Strand, but for what precise reason is not known ; where it continued till 1730. From this place it was subsequently conveyed to a house in Little Dean’s-yard, Westminster, purchased by the Crown of Lord Ashburnham.

On the 23d of October 1731, some unaccountable carelessness was the cause of a conflagration in the library, which had nearly destroyed it. After great exertion, assisted by the speaker Onslow, and such of the trustees as could be assembled, the fire was extinguished ; and the remaining books were immediately removed to the Dormitory just erected by the Dean and Chapter of Westminster, for the scholars at that school. Every step that prudence could suggest was taken, by the legislature and others, to repair the injury where practicable.

In 1753, *Sir Hans Sloane’s* will induced the Commons to purchase his *collection*, and form a national repository, under the name of the British Museum. It did not escape them how valuable and important an addition the Cottonian Library would be to an establishment of such great public utility. The act, therefore, made in that year, directed the manuscripts, &c. to be deposited in it, appointing that two of the trustees should be nominated in succession, by the representatives of the Cotton family for ever.

“ It now remains (Mr. Planta says, from whom some of the above particulars are selected,) to state what steps the curators of the British Museum have taken, in order to fulfil the intentions of the founder, the donor, and the legislature, respecting this important part of their trust. After causing the library to be carefully deposited in a safe and conspicuous part of the department of manuscripts, they being aware that much remained yet
to

to be done, in order to render it as useful as the nature of its contents would admit of, were pleased, in the year 1793, to direct the keeper of that department, (an office then held by me,) to take every step that might be deemed adviseable, to restore such of the damaged volumes as were thought yet capable of some farther repairs; and the imperfections of Smith's Repertory having been repeatedly complained of, to prepare a new and more accurate catalogue without delay. The following account of the manner in which I endeavoured to acquit myself of this task, will at the same time convey the best idea I can give of the present state of the library.

"This library, which originally consisted of 958 volumes, was, by the above mentioned fire, in the year 1731, reduced to 861 volumes; of which, when brought to the Museum, 105 were damaged bundles, preserved in cases. Many of the volumes in bindings were not paged at all; and few indeed were paged with accuracy. In several of them were evident marks that leaves had been purloined; and some had been bound up with much irregularity and disorder. Concerning the bundles in cases, the committee of the House of Commons, who, in the year 1732, examined into the damage occasioned by the fire, reported that several of them might, in careful hands, be so far restored as to be rendered useful; but this was afterwards rendered a task of much greater difficulty, the persons by whom they had been occasionally handled having thrown them into great, and in many instances irretrievable, confusion." By Mr. Planta's great care and judgment, however, 51 out of the 105 damaged manuscripts have been restored, and are bound up in 44 volumes; the remaining bundles, which appeared of less importance, are deemed irretrievable, and are now deposited in 62 cases. Mr. Planta also drew up a most able and valuable catalogue, which has been printed.

The collection of *Sir Hans Sloane* was made by that excellent physician during the course of an active life, protracted to the term of ninety-one years, and spent in the pursuit of knowledge and practice of benevolence; and it was augmented by a collection bequeathed to him by William Courteen, Esq.

The *King's Libraries* of printed books and manuscripts are an accumulation of several centuries, munificently bestowed upon the public; and numbers of them bear the name of George III.

The British Museum is *situated* on the north side of Great Russel-street, Bloomsbury. The site is a square, inclosed by a high blank brick-wall, which excludes the house from view in every direction on that side. At each corner is a turret; and over the great Ionic arch of entrance, a large and handsome

cupola. Upon entering the court, the spectator finds himself in a grand colonnade of Ionic pillars, extremely chaste and well proportioned, which extends the whole length of the front. At the east and west ends of the quadrangle, are the lodgings of the different officers, connecting the colonnade and museum. The fronts of those are neat, but plain, except an Ionic pediment in the centre of each. That of the house is of no precise order; the walls were erected in 1677, and are of brick, with stone rustic groins, and unadorned windows, a handsome cornice, with brackets rather than dentals, a Doric door in the centre, and one in each wing, the ascent to each of which is by many steps. On the west side of the house is a flower-garden and a terrace, disposed with much taste, and shaded by numbers of flourishing trees and shrubs. This communicates with a lawn on the north, that was bounded, till very lately, by the fields; but now the terrace on that side is inclosed by large houses, whose walls exclude the rich view from the museum, terminated by the varied scenes of Highgate, Hampstead, and the intermediate beautiful landscape. On the west side of the lawn is a double avenue of lime trees; but the area is of tasteless disposition, and very formal. The west end of this garden is now preparing for the erection of the wing lately voted by the trustees.

Every room in this extensive mansion affords a copious assemblage of objects interesting to curiosity, and conducive to instruction.

The *Reading-room* is surrounded by shelves of books, secured by wire, has a vaulted ceiling, a handsome cornice, and large marble chimney-piece, a west window, and three north, with several portraits on the walls. Facing the fire-place, are the table and chair for the superintending officer, who occupies the latter during the hours for reading, for the necessary purpose of noticing any deviation from the liberal rules for admission, or injury done to the articles in use by the readers. Behind him is another small table, on which a file is placed, with squares of paper, on which orders for books and manuscripts must be written and signed by the reader, with the day of the month. Two long tables extend north and south on each side of the fire-place for the readers. These are covered with green cloth, and are plentifully supplied with pens, ink, and rests for the books. Catalogues are placed on shelves within the room; which the reader consults at his pleasure, writes his notes from them, pulls the bell-rope near the door, a messenger immediately obeys the summons, and, in as short a time as possible, returns with the wished for book. This application may be made any reasonable number of times, from

ten in the morning till four in the afternoon; at which hour all studies cease in the reading-room of the British Museum.

The following "directions respecting the reading-room of the British Museum" have been enacted.

The reading-room of the museum is open from ten till four every day, except Saturdays and Sundays, and one week at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, also thanksgiving and fast days.

Persons desirous of admission, are to send in their applications, in writing, to the principal librarian, who will lay the same before the next general meeting, or committee of trustees. But, as it might be dangerous in so populous a metropolis as London to admit perfect strangers, it is expected that every person who applies, if not known to any trustee or officer, should produce a recommendation from some persons of known and approved character.

In all cases which require such dispatch as that time cannot be allowed for making an application to the trustees, the principal librarian, or in his absence the secretary, is empowered to grant a temporary leave till the next general meeting or committee.

Permissions will in general be granted for three months, and none for a longer term than six months, and at the expiration of each term fresh application is to be made for a renewal.

Although the librarians be strictly enjoined to use all possible dispatch in supplying the readers with the printed books or manuscripts they may apply for; yet, as in so extensive a library it may not be possible to find every article immediately, it is recommended to the readers to allow a reasonable time for the search, especially as to the printed books. It is expected that the library will soon be in such a state of arrangement as to render this intimation superfluous.

No reader (except in particular cases, at the discretion of the principal librarian), will be entitled to more than two volumes at a time; but they may be changed as often as he may require.

Readers will be allowed to take one or more extracts from any printed book or manuscript; but no whole, or greater part of a manuscript, is to be transcribed, without a particular leave from the trustees. The transcribers are not to lay the paper on which they write, on any part of the book or manuscript they are using.

No person is, on any pretence whatever, to write on any part of a printed book or manuscript belonging to the Museum; but, if any one should observe a defect, or be able to point out an improvement, in such book or manuscript, he is requested to

to signify the same to the officer in waiting, who will make proper use of the information. It may be sufficient merely to suggest, that silence is absolutely requisite in a place dedicated to the purposes of study.

A list of "*libri desiderati*" lays on the officer's table; where a reader may insert the title of any book that he finds the house does not already possess; which will be purchased at the discretion of the trustees.

In order to bring the whole compact between the public and the officers of this grand national depositary under one view, it may be proper to insert here the "directions to such as apply for tickets to see the British museum."

The museum is open for inspection from ten till four every day; except on Saturdays, Sundays, and thanksgiving and fast days; also except one week at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, and the months of August and September.

The hours of admission are at ten, twelve, and two; and each company may remain in the museum two hours, provided they come punctually at the time appointed in their tickets.

Such as are desirous to obtain admission are to apply at the office for issuing tickets, (which will be kept open on the days and hours above mentioned,) and produce a list, containing the names of each person, not exceeding twelve in number, with their descriptions and places of abode. The attendant at the said office will acquaint them what vacancies there are, and immediately deliver to them tickets for such vacant days and hours as shall best suit them. The smaller the number of persons in the list, the sooner they are like to obtain admission. Such as have obtained tickets, and cannot come, are earnestly desired to return them at the office as early as possible, that others may be admitted in their stead.

It is expected that persons, who visit the museum, be decent and orderly in their appearance and behaviour; the officers being instructed to refuse admission to, or to cause to withdraw, any one who shall disregard this caution. Past experience has shown the necessity of this injunction.

In going through the apartments, no one is to take any thing from its place; but, if he wants to examine any article more particularly, he is to apply to an officer, or to the attendant on the company. No children are to be admitted. No money is to be given to the attendants or servants.

It would exceed the limits of this work to mention, even in the slightest manner, all the valuable and curious articles

accumulated in the various rooms; the *vestibule*, the *first room* on the first floor, the *saloon*, the *room which contains the Cottonian manuscripts*, the two *Harleian rooms* and the hall, are all adorned with pictures, statues, and curiosities natural and artificial. *Sir William Hamilton's collection* is a most ample repository of gods, arms, habiliments, vases, and utensils of every kind, illustrative of the times, to which the reader of the ancient classics must transport his imagination. *The Otabeite and South Sea Rooms* are furnished by the industry and judgment of modern voyagers, with a vast variety of natural and artificial curiosities, the produce of those savage islands, where human nature shows the most accurate remaining specimen of reason just tinged with the colouring which distinguishes it from instinct.

In the inexhaustible fund of information and amusement which this grand national repository contains, the mind may be employed without fear of lassitude, and pursue with advantage almost every species of instruction.

The care of this inestimable collection, as already has been mentioned, is committed to *trustees*, of whom some are by office, some by family, and some elective. The *official trustees* are the archbishop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, lord president of the council, first lord of the treasury, lord privy seal, first lord of the admiralty, lord steward, lord chamberlain, three secretaries of state, bishop of London, speaker of the House of Commons, chancellor of the exchequer, lord chief justice of the King's Bench, master of the rolls, lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, attorney general, solicitor general, president of the Royal Society, and president of the College of Physicians. The *family trustees* are two each from the families of Sir Robert Cotton, the earl of Oxford (Harley), and Sir Hans Sloane. The *elective trustees* are fourteen in number. There is a *principal librarian*, and there are three under-librarians, each of whom has an assistant. These, and the *keeper of the reading room*, have apartments on the spot, and a sufficient number of servants is retained for necessary purposes.

SOCIETY FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE. This institution, formed in 1754, originated in the patriotic zeal of the late Mr. William Shipley, brother of the late bishop of St. Asaph; and the active and liberal patronage of the late lord Folkestone, its first president; and the late lord Romney, his successor, perfected its establishment.

The chief objects of the society are, to promote the arts, manufactures, and commerce of the united kingdom, by the donation of premiums and bounties for useful inventions, discove-

discoveries, and improvements. In pursuance of this plan, they have already expended upwards of 50,000*l.* derived from voluntary subscriptions, and legacies.

The institution consists of a president, sixteen vice-presidents, two chairmen of each of the committees, a principal and an assistant secretary, a house-keeper, a collector, and a messenger. The meetings are held at seven o'clock in the evening on Wednesdays from the fourth in October to the first in June. The meetings of the committees are appointed by the society to be held on other evenings, as may be convenient. The matters referred to them occasion their division into several classes; committees of accounts; correspondence and papers, and of miscellaneous matters; and six of premiums, namely, agriculture, chemistry, dyeing and mineralogy; polite and liberal arts; manufactures; mechanics; and British colonies and trade..

The ordinary proceedings are thus conducted: there are four general meetings in the course of each session, for the purpose of regulating the institution, by establishing new rules and orders, and reforming or rescinding those already in force, if necessary: the rest of the meetings are occupied in receiving and discussing the reports of the *committees*, and the communications of correspondents, and candidates for premiums and bounties. These communications are referred, in the order of their dates, to the respective committees, to be taken into consideration, at such meeting as the society may direct, to be summoned for that purpose; there the merits of the claimants are examined and discussed; and the result being entered on the minutes of the meeting, is reported in order of date to the society, where, after examination at two weekly meetings, the report is finally adopted or rejected. All the committees are open: and although particular members, who may be considered as best informed in particular classes, are chosen as chairmen, and specially summoned as attending members; yet every member of the society is entitled to attend, debate, and vote, in every committee.

The *rewards*, bestowed by the society, are both honorary and pecuniary. Of the first, the gold medal is the highest; silver medals are also given as honorary rewards, and both are offered and given as premiums and bounties. In the class of the polite arts, gold and silver pallets of a greater and lesser size, are also proposed and distributed as premiums and bounties. The distinction between a premium and a bounty, as given by the society, is this: premiums are annually proposed by the society in a list, each of which, a single candidate,

or several competitors, may appear to claim. Bounties, either honorary or pecuniary, are rewards the society may think proper to bestow on meritorious individuals, in respect of subjects for which no premium has been offered. No invention or improvement, for which a patent has been obtained, can receive either premium or bounty from the society. Inventions and improvements of every kind, on which the society bestow their rewards, are laid open for public use and inspection. The result of this system has possessed the society of the greatest and most valuable repository of models and machines of new invention, and important improvements in others, in every department of the economical and useful arts, that is to be found in Europe; and to which free access may always be had, by applying at the society's office.

The premiums and bounties voted by the society, during each session, were formerly delivered to the successful candidates by the secretary, after they had respectively been ordered by the society, but are now delivered by the president, on the last Tuesday in May, in the society's great room, to the several claimants, or their authorized representatives, who are summoned to attend for that purpose. This ceremony presents a most interesting and impressive spectacle to the numerous visitors who attend it, among whom are generally found the first nobility of both sexes in the kingdom, together with foreigners, and gentry of the highest distinction.

The society have also improved on their original plan by publishing an *annual volume* of the transactions, in consequence of which their correspondence with persons of this country and foreigners assumes more of a literary character. This department, which includes letters from all parts of the united kingdom, and many of the continent, is confided to the *committee of correspondence and papers*, who, after revising and arranging the communications, direct their insertion in the ensuing volume of transactions. This measure has proved highly beneficial to the interests of the society, in making public the general services they have already rendered to their country, as well as the objects which engage their immediate attention. Hence not only those subscribing members who could not assist at the deliberations of the society, and consequently remained unacquainted with their proceedings, receive complete information of them; but the attention of the public is also regularly called to the promulgation of useful and valuable information, relative to the dearest interests of this country in particular, and of mankind in general.

The series of *paintings*, by James Barry, esq. which occupies the whole circumference of the society's great room, an
extent

extent of one hundred and fourteen feet by eleven feet ten inches in height, forms not only the greatest ornament of the institution, but the first feature in the character of the British arts, in the united empire. Its design is to illustrate this maxim: "that the attainment of happiness, individual and public, depends on the cultivation of the human faculties." The first of the six pictures, of which this series is composed, represents man in his uncultivated state, with its attendant misery, invited by Orpheus to the enjoyments of social order; the second, a Grecian thanksgiving to Ceres and Bacchus; the third, the victors of the Olympic Games; the fourth, the triumph of the Thames, or Navigation; the fifth, the Society of Arts, &c. distributing their rewards; and the sixth, Elysium, or the state of retribution. The whole displays a fund of the richest talent, the highest art, and the soundest morals, that professional excellence ever presented in one grand effort, to the judgment of the amateur, the eye of the artist, or the contemplation of the philanthropist. In the possession of this work the society may truly exult, they are crowned with the laurels raised by their own hands: for this excellent institution first called the genius of the country into action, and nurtured its efforts till they became worthy of royal patronage, and, through that, of public favour; and in effecting this patriotic and honourable purpose, they have devoted more than one third of the sums they have expended in rewards on all the other classes, to that of polite arts alone.

Members are thus *elected*: Peers of the realm, and lords of parliament, are, on their being proposed by three members, immediately ballotted for. Every other person is also recommended by three members, at any meeting of the society, and his name, addition, and place of abode being hung up in the great room, until the next meeting, he is ballotted for: and if two thirds of the members present ballot in his favour, he is deemed a perpetual member, on payment of twenty pounds at once, or a subscribing member, on payment of two guineas annually. Every member has the privilege of recommending two auditors at the weekly meetings of the society. He has also the use of a valuable library, and is entitled to the annual volume of the society's transactions. Ladies are admitted as members *

The meetings are held at an excellent house purchased for that purpose in John-street in the Adelphi.

* The list published December 19th, 1804, in the twenty-second volume of the society's transactions, contains 1519 names, of whom 190 are perpetual members.

INCORPORATED SOCIETY OF ARTISTS, AND ROYAL ACADEMY. The state of the polite arts in England at the accession of his present majesty bordered on national reproach. In the preceding reign they had sustained total neglect; but now a more than common attention to the arts began to manifest itself, not only among the professors, but among the higher ranks of society, which was stimulated by the favour shewn to the new and popular institution, the "Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce," under whose auspices the annual public exhibitions first originated. To this standard modest merit was invited to receive support and protection, and ability acquired means of obtaining distinction and liberal reward. This bias in favour of the liberal arts was not unnoticed by his majesty; and when the artists formed their plan of uniting in a body to perpetuate their public exhibitions, and assumed a permanent character by incorporation, the royal consent was graciously conceded, and their charter granted January 26th, 1765.

From this "Incorporated Society of Artists of Great Britain," arose the Royal Academy, in consequence of a dispute between the directors and the fellows, which occasioned a separation of interests. On the 10th of December 1768, the institution of the present Royal Academy was completed, under the immediate patronage of his majesty; and Sir Joshua Reynolds, receiving the honour of knighthood on the occasion, was appointed its first president. It was instituted for the encouragement of design, painting, sculpture, &c.

This academy is under the immediate patronage of the king, and under the direction of forty artists of the first rank in their several professions. It furnishes, in winter, living models of different characters to draw after; and in summer models of the same kind to paint after. Nine of the ablest academicians are annually elected out of the forty, whose business it is to attend by rotation, to set the figures, to examine the performances of the students, and to give them necessary instructions. There are likewise four professors, of painting, of architecture, of anatomy, and of perspective, who annually read public lectures on the subjects of their several departments, beside a president, a council, and other officers.

The admission to this academy is free to all students, properly qualified, to reap advantage from the studies cultivated in it; and there is an annual exhibition of paintings, sculptures, and designs, to which all artists of distinguished merit may send specimens. The money paid as the price of admission to these exhibitions has, of late years, proved fully sufficient to support the expenses of the establishment, but at its commencement it

was assisted by royal bounty to the amount of 5000*l*. It is only necessary to recollect the numerous productions which have passed in review before the public, since the formation of these establishments for the encouragement of the elegant arts, to be convinced of the sound policy of giving all possible energy to those exertions of native genius, which in so short a time have turned the tide of public approbation, and added signal glory to the British name, by breaking through all the obstacles raised by prejudice, ignorance, or malice.

The Society of Artists still exists; its establishment is in the Strand. The Royal Academy had at first its rooms in Pall-Mall, but afterward a magnificent set of apartments was allotted to it in Somerset House.

BRITISH INSTITUTION. In the exhibitions at the rooms of the Royal Academy, it invariably occurred that too great a number of subjects was presented to allow of the distinct contemplation of every picture, or of every class, and the great proportion of portraits prevented the favourable display of historical pieces. To obviate these complaints, and to afford opportunities for the artists of this country to gain the advantages resulting from the frequent view of their productions by the public, a new society was formed in the year 1805, under the name of the British Institution, where historical pieces by British artists, and intended for sale, can alone be exhibited.

A large subscription was speedily made for the generous purpose of encouraging native genius, and a house in Pall Mall, erected by alderman Boydell for the exhibition of pictures painted for his publication of Shakspeare, and afterward disposed of by lottery, was purchased for the institution.

By its fundamental regulations, the executive government is confined to a *committee* of sixteen of the noblemen and gentlemen who are of the classes of *hereditary governors*, having subscribed one hundred guineas, and of *life governors*, having subscribed fifty guineas in one sum. A committee of *visitors* of the same number and order of subscribers form also a branch of the establishment; together with a *treasurer*, *secretary*, and *keeper*, with an adequate number of necessary servants.

The property of the institution is vested in the hereditary governors, subject to the privileges of the life governors, and of the annual and life subscribers.

Every *governor* has a right of personal admission to the institution, and of introducing two friends each day to the exhibition and gallery.

Annual subscribers of five guineas have also the same privileges.

Annual subscribers of three guineas have personal admission, with one friend daily.

Annual subscribers of one guinea, or ten guineas in one sum as life subscribers, have only personal admission to the exhibition and gallery. Ladies may be subscribers in the class of governors, and vote by proxy. They are also life or annual subscribers, in which classes none are qualified as voters on any business of the institution. The *treasurer* is annually chosen, and gives security to the directors, with two sureties in the sum of 5000 *l.* The *keeper*, who has the care of the premises, and the whole property of the institution, the arrangement and conducting of the exhibition and sales of pictures, &c. in the gallery, together with the direction and superintendence of all the servants of the establishment, holds that office during pleasure; under the security of his own bond in the sum of one thousand pounds, and that of a friend in the same sum.

The terms of *admission of pictures* for exhibition and sale, in the gallery of the institution, are the same as at the Royal Academy, the artist being only at the expense and trouble of sending them, and of taking them away at the close of the exhibition. No artist can have any share in the direction of the institution; but they are at liberty to become subscribers. Pictures, &c. that have been exhibited at the Royal Academy, or in any other exhibition, are eligible to be received and exhibited in the British gallery, if approved of by the committee of directors. No deduction whatsoever is made on any picture or other work of art sold in this gallery; nor on the sale of any picture, nor can they be removed till the close of the exhibition.

Beside these very advantageous offers to artists, the patrons of the institution have extended the benefit, by lending the best pictures of the ancient masters to be placed in the room during the recess of the regular exhibition, and copied by young artists.

GRESHAM COLLEGE. This establishment for the diffusion of instruction in the metropolis, owes its origin to Sir Thomas Gresham, a very wealthy merchant, who, dying in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, bequeathed to the corporation of London one moiety of the buildings of the Royal Exchange, upon trust that they and their successors should every year give and distribute, for the sustentation of four persons, to be chosen by the corporation, qualified to read lectures of divinity, astronomy, music, and geometry, in his own dwelling-house, in the parish of St. Helen's, Bishopsgate-street, and St. Peter's the Poor, the sum of 200 *l.*; that is, to every of the said readers the sum of 50 *l.* yearly each for their salaries and stipends. The other moiety

moiety of the said buildings he gave to the mercers' company, in trust yearly to pay for the finding and sustentation of three persons, by them to be chosen, to read lectures of law, physic, and rhetoric, with thelike stipend. And he gave his mansion-house, with the garden, stables, and appurtenances, to the corporation, and the mercers' company, to hold in common for the abode of the seven persons by them appointed to read lectures.

This patriotic and benevolent bequest was not carried into effect without some opposition, and the progress of the undertaking was impeded by some quarrels between the professors and the mercers' company, and some parochial disputes; but at this time, the lectures continue to be read daily in term time, at a room over the Royal Exchange, the rotation being, *Monday*, divinity; *Tuesday*, civil law; *Wednesday*, astronomy and music; *Thursday*, geometry; *Friday*, rhetoric; and *Saturday*, physic. The professors have 100*l.* a year each. The *terms* kept for reading these lectures are peculiar to Gresham college. They are five in the year; the first begins the Monday before Trinity term, of the common law, and continues thirty days; after which term a vacancy or intermission is granted for private study and other business, and for avoiding the concourse of people in the heat of summer. The second term begins the first Monday in September, and continues a fortnight. The third term begins the Monday before Michaelmas term, and lasts till and ends with the same term. The fourth begins the Monday next after the Epiphany, and continues for three-score days. The fifth term begins the Monday sevennight after Easter day, and ends with Easter term.

THE ROYAL INSTITUTION. In the year 1800, a society was formed under the patronage of his Majesty, and incorporated by royal charter, called the Royal Institution of Great Britain for diffusing the knowledge, and the facilitating the general introduction of useful mechanical inventions and improvements; and for teaching, by courses of philosophical lectures and experiments, the application of science to the common purposes of life. Of this undertaking an account was given in a prospectus, which, with a copy of the charter, was delivered to the public. It stated the various impediments which opposed the progress of improvement, and then proceeded; three distinct methods suggest themselves for the removal or diminution of the difficulties stated above: 1st, To give premiums to inventors, which is already done by the society for the encouragement of arts, &c. 2dly, To allow temporary monopolies, which is done by the grant of patents. 3dly, To diffuse the knowledge, and facilitate the introduction of useful mechanical inventions and improvements,

improvements, which is proposed to be done by the Royal Institution.

“ In the house lately purchased in Albemarle-street by the managers, it is intended to exhibit to the public the completest working models, or constructions of the full size, of all such new and valuable inventions as are capable of being applied to the common purposes of life. By this arrangement, those who adopt them may readily determine, if any failure happened in their experiments, whether the mistakes of workmen, the management of servants, or the principle of the invention have been the cause. Such a repository must also be of infinite use to artificers in furnishing models, and must enable the inquirer to obtain a thorough acquaintance with the nature and principles of what he wishes to imitate. Whatever is visible and tangible addresses itself more forcibly to the understanding than can be conveyed by any graphic or written description : it is not, however, intended to neglect the aid of the latter ; and, accordingly, detailed accounts or descriptions, accompanied with suitable drawings, will also be exhibited by way of illustration.

“ Arrangements will also be made, and correspondence established, for obtaining a knowledge of new inventions, both at home and abroad. Visitations of manufactories, and examinations of the various processes in the arts, are likewise intended ; and to the growing mass of instruction, which may arise from these sources, the managers will add a library of all the best publications on the subjects for which this institution is established.

“ For teaching *the application of science to the useful purposes of life*, a room is fitted up for philosophical lectures and experiments ; a complete laboratory and philosophical apparatus, with the necessary instruments, are provided ; and men of the first eminence in science engaged to officiate in this essential department.

“ *Chemistry*, with the aid of a laboratory, and complete apparatus for the several processes, is taught in the most simple and perspicuous manner ; and the elementary knowledge so indispensable to the intelligent manufacturer, is connected with the great operations of art and trade.

“ From the vast field of individual operations or separate manufactories, the inquirer is led to greater works of more general consideration, which include not only the objects of mechanics and chemistry strictly taken, but likewise those of commercial operation and political economy, as the structure of roads and forms of vehicles, the establishment of canals, the improvement

ment of rivers, harbours, and coasts, the art of war, and various objects connected with it."

The *funds* of the institution arise, 1st, From fifty guineas paid by each *hereditary subscriber*, who is named a proprietor; 2d, From ten guineas paid by each life subscriber; 3d, From two guineas paid by each annual subscriber; 4th, From particular donations and legacies.

A *proprietor* has an hereditary *transferable share* in the house and all the property belonging to it, has a vote in the election of managers and visitors, and two transferable tickets of admission to the establishment and lectures. A *life subscriber* has a ticket of admission for life, not transferable. An *annual subscriber* is entitled to a similar ticket during the continuance of his subscription. The three classes are alike open to ladies and gentlemen, and every class of subscribers has the privilege in common of having copies of models or drawings made (at their own expense) from those belonging to the institution.

In the house in Albemarle-street, St. James's, the principal apartments are appropriated in the following way: those on the ground floor are one for the reception of the subscribers in general; and it is there where the most esteemed periodical and scientific journals, foreign and domestic, lie for perusal, and where also a library is formed; the other is used as a board room for the managers, and also as an occasional place of meeting for the visitors.

Two rooms on the first floor have been laid together, and formed a temporary lecture room, but is to be for the library; opposite is the repository for the philosophical apparatus used at the lectures. The offices below are spacious, and suitable to many useful purposes.

The plan also comprehends the formation of a complete scientific theatre, or lecture room, a capacious repository, co-extensive with the theatre, for the exposition of mechanical models and improvements, and a complete laboratory.

The lectures at the Royal Institution have been, from its first foundation, attended with eager curiosity by persons of the first distinction in the fashionable as well as the learned world.

Journals were also published of the proceedings, which, it was declared, should be exclusively devoted to the diffusion of the knowledge of new and interesting scientific discoveries, and of useful improvements in mechanics, arts, and manufactures; and particularly in making known all such new inventions and contrivances as tend to facilitate labour, render it more productive, to promote domestic economy, and increase the conveniences, comforts, and enjoyments of life. Neither political discussions, nor religious disputes, nor the common news of the day were ever to find a place in these journals; nor the common advertisements

vertisements of individuals ever to be published in them, on any pretext whatever. They occasionally contained copper plates, or diagrams cut in wood, for the purposes of illustration; and were sold at a price merely sufficient to pay for the compiling and printing.

Numerous committees were formed for giving effect to the various plans of the institution, and the list of proprietors and subscribers filled with prodigious rapidity.

The institution is placed under the government and direction of a president, a committee of fifteen managers, and a committee of visitors of the same number; to these are added a treasurer, secretary, professor of chemistry, librarian, and some other officers.

THE LONDON INSTITUTION. The London Institution was formed in the autumn of 1805, by the indefatigable exertions of a few public spirited-individuals. The temporary house, till the managers can procure a more suitable place, is in the Old Jewry.

The design of this institution is to promote the diffusion of science, literature, and the arts, its views at present being confined to three objects; viz. the acquisition of a valuable and extensive library; the diffusion of useful knowledge by means of lectures and experiments; and the establishment of a reading room, where the foreign and domestic journals, and other periodical works, and the best pamphlets and new publications are provided for the use of the proprietors and subscribers.

The government of this institution is vested in the committee of managers, consisting of the president, four vice-presidents, twenty managers, and the secretary. The proprietors, the number of whom is limited to one thousand, paid seventy-five guineas for each share, and the life subscribers twenty-five guineas. The proprietors are intitled to personal admission to the library, lectures, and reading rooms, and to one transferable ticket, intitling the bearer to the same privileges. The life subscribers have personal admission only.

On entering the house, the large room behind the hall is fitted up for the purpose of the proprietors and subscribers reading the English newspapers; the room on the right for the foreign journals and newspapers; and that on the left for the English monthly publications and modern popular books.

The library is on the first floor, and contains a numerous and well-selected variety of scarce and valuable classical, historical, and miscellaneous books.

BOARD OF AGRICULTURE. This board, formed on scientific principles, for a purpose of acknowledged and general utility, owes its origin to Sir John Sinclair. In the course of many active

active inquiries into the revenue and other subjects connected with the prosperity of the British nation, and of many earnest endeavours to meliorate the condition of the country at large, both by his personal labours and the formation of useful societies, he formed an opinion that, unless a board of agriculture were instituted for the sole purpose of superintending the improvement of the sheep and wool of the country, and other objects connected either with the cultivation or with the pasturage of the soil, the exertions of any private society must soon slacken, and its labours become useless and inefficient; whereas under the protection of government, and the superintendence of such a board, properly constituted, (more especially if formed of persons, who gratuitously devoted their services to promote such valuable and truly national interests,) every field would soon be cultivated to the best advantage, and every species of stock would soon be brought to their greatest possible perfection.

Fully impressed with the importance of the institution thus hinted at, he came to London in December 1792, and communicated it to the minister. As Sir John was in opposition, his hopes of success were not very sanguine; but Mr. Dundas, with characteristic liberality, became so satisfied on the subject, that in the progress of the affair through the House of Commons, he aided it with his utmost ability and influence. The resistance to the measure was made by the opposition party, who imagined that some deep plot of the ministers, or some scheme of corruption or influence was at the bottom. An address to the King was however carried, requiring the establishment of a board of agriculture, the expense being limited to 3000 *l.* per annum, and the projector was appointed its first president.

The plan of the board is thus stated by Sir John Sinclair himself. "It is proposed that the Board shall consist of twenty-four members, in the same manner as the present Board of Trade*, but not to be restricted to members of his Majesty's Privy Council, as the president of the Royal Society, and other persons, who are not in either house of parliament, may be useful members. The advantages of a great number of members are, first, that it totally precludes every possible idea of giving salaries, which would not answer any real purpose of utility, and would at the same time make the institution expensive. Secondly, it would give occupation of a public nature to many respectable individuals, both in and out of parliament, who are anxious to be employed in public business, but who at

* With, however, an unlimited number of honorary and corresponding members.

present have no particular object, to which they can direct their attention.

“The expense of such a board may be estimated at about 3000 *l.* per annum, to be laid out in the following manner:

Per Ann.

1. Expense of the house, a secretary, and two clerks, (for the correspondence will be very extensive,) may be stated at	-	-	£500 0 0
2. Stationary may amount to	-	-	200 0 0
3. Foreign correspondence respecting the agriculture of other countries, procuring foreign books on agriculture, seeds, animals, and implements of husbandry	-	-	300 0 0
4. The expense of sending persons to make regular annual surveys of the state of agriculture and sheep-farming, all over the kingdom, for the purpose of establishing correspondence, of ascertaining what improvements have been made in different parts of the country, the principal defects of each district in the management of their farms, &c.	-	-	500 0 0
5. The expense of printing and circulating those surveys, and other works that may be published under the sanction of the board, together with honorary rewards to corresponding members, who try, in different parts of the country, such experiments for the improvement of wool, &c. as may be recommended by the board	-	-	500 0 0
6. The expense of collecting the materials of a statistical survey of England, to be carried on under the Board of Agriculture	-	-	500 0 0
7. Incidental Expenses	-	-	500 0 0
			£3000 0 0

“The above sum, it is believed, will be found adequate to the purposes in view; and in order to obviate every possible objection on the score of expense, it is proposed to establish such a board for five years only, merely by way of experiment, to be afterwards continued, in the event alone of its answering the important object for which it was instituted. It was at first intended to propose some additional expense, to be laid out in premiums; but, upon farther consideration, it was judged more advisable to leave the giving of money in premiums

miums to private societies, and restrict the donations of a public board, to honorary rewards.

“That the public ought not to grudge such a sum for so necessary a purpose, need hardly be long dwelt upon. For objects of general utility, parliament has often, and ought always to exert itself. The Board of Longitude has had various considerable sums laid out as premiums under its authority, for rewarding such as have made any important discovery in the point to which its attention is directed. The culture of flax has been encouraged by public bounties. And where is the object so well entitled to national countenance and support, as that of promoting the general interests of agriculture, and of ascertaining the best means of bringing it to perfection?

“The advantages of such a board are obvious.

“I. It is well known, that there are many societies for the improvement of agriculture, in all its various branches, already scattered over the kingdom, and many more would probably be established, were parliament to sanction the object of such societies by its approbation. The establishment of such a board, there is reason to believe, would be of incredible service in keeping up the spirit of such institutions, in giving them a proper direction, and in procuring for them more weight and consequence in those parts of the country where they exist. Besides, at present any improvements made by such societies are only known within their own narrow sphere; whereas they might be rapidly spread over the whole kingdom through the medium of a board of agriculture, with whom every one of them would be desirous of corresponding.

“II. In regard to the idea, that the whole had better be carried on by a private society, it is to be observed, that *no private society* can ever have the same weight, either with the farmer at home, or with foreign countries (from which undoubtedly much information may be obtained), as a *public institution*. In the second place, no private society could be intrusted like a public Board, with a power of receiving and transmitting letters, and even packets, duty free, without which, at the same time, it could not be of general benefit; for it is only by frequently dispersing small tracts, and not voluminous publications, that the farmer can best be instructed and roused to activity and exertion. In the third place, a public board may easily collect into one focus, all the knowledge and information that may be acquired by a great number of small societies scattered over the kingdom; may make them useful to each other, and mutually co-operate for the general benefit of the country; but that is a degree of authority, which no private society, however constituted, could possibly acquire.

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4. The expense of sending persons to make regular annual surveys of the state of agriculture and sheep-farming, all over the kingdom, for the purpose of establishing correspondence, of ascertaining what improvements have been made in different parts of the country, the principal defects of each district in the management of their farms, &c.	-	-	500 0 0
5. The expense of printing and circulating those surveys, and other works that may be published under the sanction of the board, together with honorary rewards to corresponding members, who try, in different parts of the country, such experiments for the improvement of wool, &c. as may be recommended by the board	-	-	500 0 0
6. The expense of collecting the materials of a statistical survey of England, to be carried on under the Board of Agriculture	-	-	500 0 0
7. Incidental Expenses	-	-	500 0 0
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“III. It

“ III. It is now found that an union of husbandry and sheep-farming is the best means of bringing agriculture to perfection; whilst, at the same time, it furnishes the raw materials for our most valuable manufacture. By carrying the improvement of our wool, both in regard to quantity and quality, as far as the soil and climate of Great Britain will admit of (which, if such a board were established, might be done in the space of a few years), there is every reason to believe that three millions *per annum*, in manufactured articles, will be added to the national wealth, in addition to the benefit which the soil will receive from an improved system of husbandry.

“ IV. But the part of the plan from which the greatest and most important benefits are to be expected, is that of carrying on a statistical survey of England, for the purpose of ascertaining the real political situation of that part of the kingdom, in every point of view, respecting which a statesman would wish to have information. In the short period of about three years, such a survey of Scotland will be completed, by the voluntary exertions of the clergy of North Britain; and in the space of five years, a similar survey of England may be brought to a conclusion. The object of such a survey would be, to ascertain the general state of the agriculture, the manufactures, and the commerce of the country, the means of improvement of which they are respectively capable; the amount of the population of the state, and the causes of its increase or decrease: the manner in which the territory of the country is possessed and cultivated; the nature and amount of the various productions of the soil, the value of the personal wealth of stock of the inhabitants, and how it can be augmented; the diseases to which the people are subject, their causes, and their cure; the occupations of the people, where they are entitled to encouragement, and where they ought to be suppressed; the condition of the poor, the best mode of maintaining them, and of giving them employment; the state of schools, and other institutions formed for purposes of public utility; the state of the villages and of the towns in the kingdom, and the regulations best calculated for their police and good government; and lastly, the state of the manners and morals, and the general character of the people, and the articles in regard to which their situation is most capable of melioration and improvement.

“ To conclude, it is only by means of such inquiries, that any society can possibly expect to enjoy all that political happiness to which it must naturally aspire. By ascertaining facts with minuteness and accuracy, the real state of the country must be made known, and the means of its future improvement pointed out. Every field, it may be expected, will then be cultivated
to

to the best advantage, and every measure will be taken, that can best tend to promote the general interests of the community."

That this establishment has been attended with conspicuous success and effects eminently beneficial, no one who peruses the publications of the Board, and reflects on the increased energy with which agricultural improvement has been pursued since its formation can doubt. The great and most extensively useful attempt of the baronet, that of obtaining a minute statistical account of the whole kingdom, could not, however, be effected. The sum allowed by government was insufficient, and as the privilege of franking was not granted to the Board, it could not sustain the heavy charge of postage, which must have been incurred. It was also found impossible, out of the limited sum of 3000 *l.* per annum, to furnish copies of the reports to all members of either house of parliament who should apply for them, without the aid of a subscription of ten guineas from each.

This outline will exhibit to the reader the nature of the most general and popular institutions for the diffusion of knowledge and taste, and encouragement of the arts and sciences; but it is not to be supposed that it is any thing approaching to an enumeration of the vast variety of establishments and undertakings which public combination and private enterprize have formed for these purposes. Museums, lecture-rooms, libraries, and laboratories are established in every part of the kingdom, nor is there an art, or a topic of human curiosity, which is not illustrated and familiarized by lectures and models. Every town in the kingdom possesses either a *book society*, where publications of merit are bought by subscription for the use of the parties, or a *circulating library*, where they are purchased by the proprietor of the house, and lent to readers, in consideration of an annual or other subscription. Works of every description are daily issued from the press, the reviews of literary productions are numerous, and conducted with spirit and ability, and in various periodical publications, the progress of the useful and ornamental arts is accurately traced, while the great interests, or amusing levities of human life furnish matter to a great number of daily, weekly, and other papers.

LIBERTY OF THE PRESS. The liberty of the press is justly considered one of the most invaluable blessings attending the free and happy constitution of Great Britain. This privilege, however valuable, must be enjoyed, like all other privileges, with such temperance as may prevent it from degenerating into abuse; for, in fact, they who support the unbridled licen-

tioufness of the prefs are the greatest enemies to its real liberty. Where the prefs is exempt from all restraints, its perpetual offence becomes unbearable; irritation is succeeded by violence; the peace of society is destroyed; and the majority of reasoning men find it more easy to submit to a tyrannical restraint, which at first gives relief, although in the end it is destructive of liberty, than to endure the miseries arising from continual hostility, inflamed by the rancorous effusions of a scurrilous and unrestrained prefs. Fortunately for this country, its progress in this matter has not been from excessive liberty to severe restraint, but from absolute slavery to the only rational freedom that can be attained, the liberty of doing whatever seems good to the individual, subject to the responsibility imposed by the law. How this operates with respect to libels has been mentioned in the preceding volume.

LICENSING. A restraint on the general freedom of the prefs was empowered by the stat. 14 Charles II. which expired in 1692; and was ever considered as a hard law, since it every where countenanced the king's exclusive privilege of printing, restrained the number of presses, rendered the licensing of books necessary, and imposed heavy penalties and forfeitures. By this statute, which recited that printing is a matter of public care, it was enacted, that no private person whatsoever should print, or cause to be printed, any book or pamphlet, unless the same should be first entered in the book of the Registrar of the Company of Stationers in London; except acts of parliament, proclamations, and such other books and papers as should be appointed to be printed by virtue of the king's sign manual, or under the hand of one of the secretaries of state; and unless the same should be first licensed by the several persons therein directed; that is to say, all books concerning the common law were to be printed by the allowance of the Lord Chancellor, the Lords Chief Justices and Lord Chief Baron, or one of them; of history, concerning the state of this realm, or other books concerning any affairs of state, by one of the secretaries of state; of heraldry, by appointment of the Earl Marshal, or if there should be no Earl Marshal, then by two of the kings of arms; all other books, whether of divinity, physick, philosophy, or other science or art whatsoever, by the archbishop of Canterbury, or bishop of London, or by their appointment respectively, or, in the universities, by the chancellor or vice-chancellor there, provided that the said chancellor or vice-chancellor should not meddle either with books of common law, or matters of state or government, nor any book, the right of printing which solely and properly belonged to any particular person. And the printers were to set their names,

and declare the name of the author if required. But there was a proviso, that nothing therein should extend to infringe any the just rights and privileges of either of the universities, touching the licensing or printing of books therein; nor should extend to prejudice the just rights and privileges granted by the king, or any of his royal predecessors, to any person or persons under the great seal or otherwise, but that they might exercise such rights and privileges according to their respective grants.

MODERN RESTRAINTS. From the time when this act expired, printing was under no controul or restraint, except the general responsibility for the publication of libels; nor is it at this day; but in order to prevent the clandestine fabrication of improper publications, which might be distributed by persons too obscure and insignificant for effectual punishment, the 39th Geo. III. c. 79, made to prevent the mischiefs meditated by certain seditious societies, recites and enacts, among other things, as follows: "And whereas the societies aforesaid, and many others have caused to be published in great quantities, divers printed papers of an irreligious, treasonable, and seditious nature, tending to revile religion, and excite hatred and contempt of his majesty's person, government, and laws, and it is highly important that it should be known by whom such papers are printed: It is enacted, that every person having any printing press or types for printing, shall cause notice thereof, signed in the presence of, and attested by one witness, to be delivered to the clerk of the peace, or his deputy, who shall grant a certificate thereof, for which shall be paid one shilling and no more; and shall file such notice, and shall transmit an attested copy thereof to a secretary of state. And every person who, not having delivered such notice, and obtained such certificate, shall keep or use any printing press or types for printing, or having delivered such notice, and obtained such certificate, shall use any press or types in any other place than that expressed in such notice, shall forfeit 20 l. Provided that nothing herein shall extend to his majesty's printer, or to the two universities. And every letter-founder, or maker or seller of type for printing, or of printing presses, shall give notice of his intention of carrying on such business to the clerk of the peace, or his deputy, who shall thereupon grant a certificate thereof, for which shall be paid one shilling and no more, and shall file such notice, and shall transmit an attested copy thereof to a secretary of state: and every person who shall make or sell any type for printing, or printing press, without having given such notice, and obtained such certificate, shall forfeit 20 l. And every person who shall sell types for printing, or any

printing press as aforesaid, shall keep an account in writing of all persons to whom any such shall be sold, and shall produce such account to any justice who shall in writing demand the same; on pain of forfeiting 20 *l.* And every person who shall print any paper or book, which shall be meant or intended to be published or dispersed, whether sold or given away, shall print upon the front of every such paper, if printed on one side only, and upon the first and last leaves of every paper or book which shall consist of more than one leaf, in legible characters, his name, and the name of the city, town, parish or place; and also the name (if any) of the square, street, lane, court, or place in which his dwelling house, or usual place of abode shall be; and in default, shall for every copy of such paper so published or dispersed, forfeit 20 *l.* and also every person assisting therein shall forfeit the like penalty. Provided that nothing herein shall extend to any papers printed by the authority and for the use of either house of parliament. Nor shall any person who shall disperse or assist in dispersing any paper, printed under the authority of the head officers of any of the principal officers of state, or of any board of revenue, or the army or navy, without the regulations of the aforesaid act being complied with, previous to the passing of the said act, be liable to the penalties of the said act. And any person who shall print any paper for hire or profit, shall keep one copy thereof at least, on which he shall write or print the name and place of abode of the person by whom he is employed, and shall keep the same for six calendar months next after the printing thereof, which he shall produce to any justice who, within that time, shall require to see the same; on pain of forfeiting for every such neglect 20 *l.* And any person to whom or in whose presence, any printed paper not having the name and place of abode of any person printed thereon, shall be sold or offered for sale, or given *gratis*, or offered so to be; or shall be pasted, fixed or left in any public place, or in any other manner exposed to public view, may take and convey such offender before a justice, or may deliver him to a constable or other peace officer to be carried before a justice, to the intent that he may hear and determine whether such person has been guilty of any offence against this act. Provided, that nothing herein shall extend to any engraving, or to the printing by letter press of the name, or the name and address, business or profession of any person, and the articles in which he deals; or to any papers for the sale of estates or goods by auction or otherwise; nor to alter any rule, regulation, or provision in any act of parliament respecting the printing, publishing, or distributing any newspaper, or other printed paper. And if any justice shall, from information

tion on oath, have reason to suspect that any printing press, or types for printing, are used, or kept for use, without notice given, and certificate obtained as hereby required, or in any place not included in such notice and certificate, he may, by warrant, empower any constable in the day time, with such person as shall be called to his assistance, to search any house, room, or place, and to seize and carry away every printing press found therein, together with all the types and other articles thereto belonging and used in printing, and all printed paper there found. Prosecutions to be commenced within three months; penalties under 20*l.* may be recovered in a summary way before magistrates; and the monies recovered are to be applied half to the king and half to the informer.

COPY-RIGHT. Originally the Crown was invested with the prerogative of granting patents for the printing of books, and this right, however injurious and oppressive to the subject, is reserved to the king in the statute (21 Jas. I. c. 3.) against monopolies. This prerogative, however, was much disputed, and although many decisions were given in favour of patentees, yet the right became at length greatly restricted, and at last limited to a very small number of objects. The general rule established was, that if a book had no certain author, the king had the property of the copy, and might grant it to whom he thought fit; hence almanacks, translations of the Bible, and the book of Common Prayer, were bestowed by royal grant, although it has been shaken by legal decisions with respect to almanacks, and is frequently, and easily evaded with respect to Bibles and books of Common Prayer.

For protection of the rights of authors to the works produced by their own industry or genius, provision was made by the 8 Anne, c. 19., and further extended by the 41st Geo. 3. c. 107., and the 54th Geo. 3. c. 156. The effect of these statutes is, that the author of any book and his assigns shall have the sole liberty of printing it for twenty-eight years, to commence from the day of publishing; and should the author survive that term, the right reverts to him for life. If any person within that time shall print, reprint, or import any such book without the consent of the proprietor, or shall knowingly publish it without such consent, the offender shall be liable to damages, with double costs, to be recovered in a special action on the case, shall forfeit the books and sheets to the proprietor, who shall damask and make them waste paper, and shall forfeit 3*d.* for every sheet found in his custody, either printed or printing, one moiety to the crown, the other to him who will sue in any court at Westminster. In consideration of this protection, and for the advancement of learning, the proprietors of books are obliged, on demand regularly made, to send a copy of every

work, with its maps and prints, to each of the following repositories of learning. The British Museum, Sion College, the Bodleian Library, the public library at Cambridge, the library of the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, the libraries of the four Universities of Scotland, and Trinity College, and the King's Inns libraries in Dublin.

It was determined by the court of King's Bench in the great case of *Millar v. Taylor*, that an exclusive right in authors existed by the common law. But afterwards in the case of *Donaldson v. Becket*, before the House of Lords, which was finally determined 12th February 1774, it was holden, that no copy-right subsists in authors after the expiration of the several terms created by the above statute of Queen Anne. In consequence of this decision an act was passed in the following year for enabling the two universities in England, the four universities in Scotland, and the colleges of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester, to hold in perpetuity their copy-right in books given or bequeathed to them by authors, or their representatives, upon trust that the profits arising from the printing or reprinting of such books shall be applied as a fund for the advancement of learning, and other beneficial purposes of education.

If an author or his assignee seeks for penalties under the above statute, he will not recover them, unless he has complied with its directions, by entering the title of his work in the books of the Stationers' Company at Stationers' Hall, London, and delivering the copies as in the act directed. But, in any case, the court of Chancery will grant an injunction to restrain a piratical publisher from continuing to sell a work purloined from another, and will oblige him to account for the profits, and that, in some cases, with costs.

It has been adjudged that musical publications are within the protection of the statute; and the privileges granted to authors are extended to the inventors of prints and engravings, for the term of eight-and-twenty years, by the statutes 8 Geo. II. c. 13. and 7 Geo. III. c. 38., besides an action for damages, with double costs, by stat. 17 Geo. III. c. 57. Also by 38 Geo. III. c. 71. artists employed in making models and casts of busts and other figures in alto and basso rilievo, have obtained for themselves and their assigns the exclusive property for fourteen years of all original models and casts, which must be marked with the name of the proprietor and the date of their publication.

PATENTS. As the composers of good books are protected in the enjoyment of their fair profits for a reasonable time, so also, they who, by mechanical or other inventions, benefit the community, and facilitate the progress of the arts, manufactures, or trade, are allowed the sole privilege of making the things they have invented for the term of fourteen years. The privilege of granting

granting letters patent to this effect is reserved to the king in the statute against monopolies, and the obtaining of it is considered as mere matter of right, not of favour, since it is never refused on a proper application, and on payment of the fees, which amount to about 100/.

The patent is granted upon condition that the invention is new, or new in this country; and that the patentee shall deliver a specification of his invention, containing such a description, plan, or model of the machine or article, as to be intelligible to every artist conversant in the same trade or manufactory. Or the invention must be so described that the public may, at the end of fourteen years, have the use of it in as cheap and beneficial a manner as the patentee himself uses it. Hence if the specification be in any part materially false, defective, obscure, or give directions which tend to mislead the public, the patent is against law and cannot be supported. The specifications are preserved in an office for public inspection; and some patents, in very valuable manufactures, have been declared void, on account of the designed obscurity of the specification. In some extraordinary cases, parliament has granted to the patentee an additional term, after the expiration of the first fourteen years.

TRADE.

In considering of the political state of the British Empire, its commerce forms a topic of the highest importance. The local position of the country, the wise and philosophical views both of its government and people, the ease, independence and security arising from experienced success, and the clamorous envy of rival nations have concurred to point out the trade of the British nation as the surest source of its grandeur, safety, and happiness. A detailed history of the rise and progress of trade in Great Britain would occupy a very large space, and lead to discussions too extensive for this work. The detached notices intended to be given, and which are selected from various authors, will be found to contain a general outline of the particulars most essential to be understood, and some account of various circumstances incident to British commerce. In the first place, some general notions will be stated, and in subsequent divisions, the particulars of greatest moment, as respectively relating to foreign and domestic commerce.

Trade or commerce arises out of the necessity or inclination which impels men to desire those articles of property which they imagine will conduce to their comfort or happiness, and

which are in the possession of others. To obtain these by force or rapine would be not only a vicious, but a precarious recourse, and therefore, in all ages, it has been usual for those who possessed a superfluity of one commodity, to give it in exchange for the superfluity which others possessed of some other commodity. This traffic most probably began in the most gross and simple of necessities, corn and cattle; but as industry produced greater accumulations of disposable effects, and the facility of procuring various objects led to increased desires, the objects of commerce advanced, and manufactured goods, as instruments of war, articles of cloathing, and pieces of household furniture, were procured from the hands of the industrious by means of barter. In process of time, those who could manufacture these articles with correctness and dexterity, were encouraged to separate themselves from every other pursuit, and to devote their whole attention to the production of those things for which there was an ample demand, and found that by their labour they could procure from the hands of others a sufficiency of all the necessities of life. Perpetual barter becoming intricate and tedious, money was invented as an arbitrary sign, to represent, by an understood valuation, the various necessities and luxuries, which are the objects of commerce. It was even so commodious a possession, and so highly valued in very early ages of the world, that it became the cause of transferring from one possessor to another, many things which in a more simple state of society would have been deemed inalienable; not only corn and cattle, but land and dwellings were sold; not only manufactures and labour were the objects of pay and purchase, but for money, the artizan himself, his wife and children, and even whole districts with their inhabitants were procured. Commerce soon assumed a greater extent and more complicated form; the produce and manufactures of one country were transported into others, and man, learning luxury from indulgence, ceased to be happy, unless he could obtain some portion of whatever he considered to be desirable in the productions of every other part of the globe, beside those things which grew or were manufactured in that where he inhabited. Trade becoming then the occupation of whole communities, large portions of property, generally called *capital*, were set apart for the prosecution of it; laws were framed, some according to recent necessity, and some founded on ancient usage, for protecting and regulating it; and a system of mutual confidence, mutual honour, punctuality and regularity prevailed throughout all civilized nations. In Great Britain, commerce has been carried to a greater extent, cultivated with more circumstances of honourable preference, and made productive of
a greater

a greater share of public glory and general utility than in any other nation recorded in history. The merchants exceed in wealth, and vie in state and patronage with the nobles of other countries; chartered companies wield in their hands the prosperity and peace of whole nations, and even at home, private undertakers of commercial projects change the face of nature, level mountains, perforate rocks, turn the course of rivers, convert dry plains into magnificent lakes, and introduce into the recesses of solitude, the din and bustle of traffic and manufacture.

MERCHANTS. The protection of trade was very early a favourite object of the laws of this country. In the time of Athelstan we find a very remarkable law, which says, that any merchant who has made three voyages upon his own account beyond the British channel, or narrow seas, shall be intitled to the privilege of a Thane. It seems agreed too, from the fundamental principles of our government, that the king cannot regularly prohibit trade, nor lay a penny imposition on it; but that every man may use the sea, and trade with other nations, as freely as he may use the air. But notwithstanding this freedom of trade, it is agreed, that the king may in time of war, and for the public service and safety, lay an embargo on ships, and employ the ships of his subjects in the public service; but this, says Lord Chief Justice Holt, ought to be upon great emergencies, and for the public benefit, and not for the private interest of any person or society. And as the freedom of trade and merchandize is supported by the common law, so likewise are there certain customs and privileges annexed thereto by the common law, of which the judges will take notice *ex officio*. These customs were first established to supply the want of laws, and afterwards admitted as laws. But the privileges of a merchant are not extended to every one who buys and sells; nor is he from thence to be denominated a merchant, which appellation peculiarly belongs to him who traffics in the way of commerce by importation or exportation; or otherwise in the way of emption, vendition, barter, permutation, or exchange; and who makes it his living to buy and sell, and that by a continued assiduity, or frequent negotiation in the mystery of merchandizing; but those, who buy goods to reduce them by their own art or industry into other forms than formerly they were of, are properly called artificers, not merchants.

ALIEN MERCHANTS. Although by the policy of our constitution, aliens lie under several disabilities, and are denied in many instances the benefits of our laws; yet are they here, as in most other countries, allowed to trade and merchandize, which privilege is confirmed to them by *magna charta*, and
divers

divers acts of parliament. And as foreigners and aliens are allowed to trade amongst us, so are they allowed to maintain personal actions; because otherwise they would be incapacitated to merchandize: but they cannot maintain any real action, because it is not necessary that they should purchase lands, or settle amongst us. As to merchant strangers, whose prince is at war with the crown of England, if they are found within the realm at the beginning of the war, they may be attached with a privilege and limitation without harm of body or goods, until it be known to the king, how merchants of England are used and entreated in their country, and accordingly they must be used in England, the same being *jus belli*; but for merchant strangers that come into the realm after war begun, they may be dealt with as open enemies. And no action can be maintained by or in favour of an alien enemy.

FACTORS. As no one person whose trade is extensive can transact all his own affairs; so it is necessary for him to depute another in his place, on whose ability and honesty he can rely; and such person so deputed is called a factor, who is in nature of a servant, whose act binds his master or principal, so far as he acts pursuant to the authority given him. If the commission be general, as to *dispose, do, and deal therein as if it were your own*, the factor is excused if a loss happens; but if the commission be to *sell and dispose*, hereby the factor is not enabled to sell upon tick, nor can he sell for an unreasonable time as ten or twenty years, though there be words *as if it were your own*, but he must sell according to the usual time, for which credit is given for the commodities he disposes of.

PARTNERS. Partners are joint-tenants in all the stock and partnership effects; and they are so not only of the particular stock in being at the time of entering into the partnership, but they continue joint-tenants throughout whatever changes may take place in the course of trade; for if it were otherwise, it would be impossible to carry on partnership trade. Hence assignees under a commission of bankrupt against one partner, can only be tenants in common of an undivided share, subject to all the rights of the other partner. And if a creditor of one partner takes out execution against the partnership effects, he can only have the undivided share of his debtor; and must take it in the same manner the debtor himself had it, and subject to the rights of the other partner. So that one partner can have no right against the other, in his capacity of partner, but to what is due to him out of the joint stock, after making all just allowances, let the fluctuations of trade be what they may. The whole of this doctrine seems to arise out of the very principle upon which partnership is founded, namely, probable profit,

profit, and the risk of loss; the advantages or disadvantages of which cannot, in common justice, be confined to one side only, but must be reciprocal throughout. But in order to constitute a partnership, and make a person liable as a partner, there must be an agreement between him and the ostensible person to *share in all risks of profit or loss*, or he must have permitted the other to have used his credit, and to hold him out as jointly liable with himself. A man entering into an agreement, and afterwards subdividing his beneficial interest under it, among others, is alone liable to the performance, and the subcontract does not constitute a partnership. If two or more engage in a joint undertaking in the way of trade, or enter into copartnership, it is not necessary to provide against survivorship; for by a maxim of the common law, *jus accrescendi inter mercatores locum non habet*; and this is for the benefit of trade and commerce, that the fruits of each person's labour and industry should descend to his children and family. By the custom of England, where there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill, drawn on both for him and partner, it binds both, if it concerns the trade; otherwise, if it concerns the acceptor only in a distinct interest and respect. Although a moiety of a joint stock may be taken in execution on a judgment against one partner; yet, if copartners become bankrupts, the joint estate is to discharge the joint debts in the first place, and the separate estate to pay the separate debts; and if there be no separate estate, then the residue of the joint estate, after the joint creditors are satisfied, to be applied among the separate creditors, and so *vice versa*; for the commissioners of bankrupts are intrusted both with a legal and equitable jurisdiction, and may therefore marshal the different effects, and apply them in discharge of the different creditors according to equity and justice.

COMPANIES. The word company signifies persons associated for the purpose of carrying on a particular branch of trade, or for some particular purpose, and implies, in a general sense, that they do so with a joint stock. The traders in a regulated company do not properly form a company at all; it is only a subscription, and the subscribers at Lloyd's might as well and properly be termed a company, (for they act independently, though subject to certain regulations,) as the Russia and Turkey merchants are. The meaning of the word would be of little importance, were it not that the idea of a company carries with it the idea of monopoly, of restraint, of high prices, and high profits, thereby exciting prejudice against those who belong to such societies or regulated companies. This has gone so far, that it may lead some time or other to the abolishing

abolishing entirely the form of such companies; it may therefore be well to observe, that when the trade to a country is such as to require some general expenses and regulations for its convenience, it is always well to have a regulated company. Thus it is to Turkey and Russia, but it would be totally useless to the United States of America. New branches of trade require in many cases a general concurrence and effort to make them prosper, and this is best effected by a regulated company. When the trade is of great national importance, such as the West India trade, government finds itself under the necessity of providing funds for general purposes, and the merchants find it necessary for their interest to meet in assemblies, and act in concert. The owners of shipping have found it necessary also to assemble, and to contribute funds for certain general purposes, which is, in fact, (though without any authority from government,) acting as a regulated company; and as this is done, of their own free will, by men who best understand their own interests, there can be no doubt of the advantage and utility. The trading companies in Great Britain are very numerous, and wealthy, and some of them will be noticed in the ensuing details respecting external and internal commerce. They are generally under the controul and superintendence of governors, directors, and other officers, and are either voluntary, founded on some deed, or sanctioned by act of parliament or by charter.

SHOPKEEPERS. This class of persons, so numerous, and so essentially necessary in all towns, are more separate in their transactions than merchants, dealing to a smaller amount, and generally by retail, not forming commercial companies, but limiting their undertakings to such objects as can be managed by a principal and his partners or assistants. In former times, distinctions were made between merchants and shopkeepers, which are not now in any manner preserved, except with reference to the magnitude of their dealings, their honour, and their punctuality.

ARTIFICERS. In this description is included the whole manufacturing class of the community; a most useful body, who by their industry and ingenuity have contributed to the wealth of their country, and raised its reputation to the highest pitch in all parts of the world.

Such are the principal divisions of persons by whose enterprise and activity wealth is circulated, and industry made productive. On the separate utility of each class, Dr. Adam Smith makes the following observations. A capital may be employed in four different ways: either, first, in procuring the rude produce annually required for the use and consumption of the

the society ; or, secondly, in manufacturing and preparing that rude produce for immediate use and consumption ; or, thirdly, in transporting either the rude or manufactured produce from the places where they abound to those where they are wanted ; or, lastly, in dividing particular portions of either into such small parcels as suit the occasional demands of those who want them. In the first way are employed the capitals of all those who undertake the improvement or cultivation of lands, mines, or fisheries ; in the second, those of all master manufacturers ; in the third, those of all wholesale merchants ; and in the fourth, those of all retailers. It is difficult to conceive that a capital should be employed in any way which may not be classed under some one or other of those four.

Each of those four methods of employing a capital is essentially necessary either to the existence or extension of the other three, or to the general conveniency of the society. Unless a capital was employed in furnishing rude produce to a certain degree of abundance, neither manufactures nor trade of any kind could exist. Unless a capital was employed in manufacturing that part of the rude produce which requires a good deal of preparation before it can be fit for use and consumption, it would either never be produced, because there could be no demand for it ; or if it was produced spontaneously, it would be of no value in exchange, and could add nothing to the wealth of the society. Unless a capital was employed in transporting, either the rude or manufactured produce, from the places where it abounds to those where it is wanted, no more of either could be produced than was necessary for the consumption of the neighbourhood. The capital of the merchant exchanges the surplus produce of one place for that of another, and thus encourages the industry and increases the enjoyments of both. Unless a capital was employed in breaking and dividing certain portions either of the rude or manufactured produce, into such small parcels as suit the occasional demands of those who want them, every man would be obliged to purchase a greater quantity of the goods he wanted, than his immediate occasions required. If there was no such trade as a butcher, for example, every man would be obliged to purchase a whole ox or a whole sheep at a time. This would be generally inconvenient to the rich, and much more so to the poor. If a poor workman was obliged to purchase a month's or six months' provisions at a time, a great part of the stock which he employs as a capital in the instruments of his trade or in the furniture of his shop, and which yields him a revenue, he would be forced to place in that part of his stock which is reserved for immediate consumption, and which yields him no revenue. Nothing can be more convenient for such a person.

person than to be able to purchase his subsistence from day to day, or even from hour to hour, as he wants it. He is thereby enabled to employ almost his whole stock as a capital. He is thus enabled to furnish work to a greater value, and the profit which he makes by it in this way, much more than compensates the additional price which the profit of the retailer imposes upon the goods. The prejudices of some political writers against shopkeepers, and tradesmen, are altogether without foundation. So far is it from being necessary, either to tax them, or to restrict their numbers, that they can never be multiplied so as to hurt the public, though they may so as to hurt one another. The quantity of grocery goods, for example, which can be sold in a particular town, is limited by the demand of that town and its neighbourhood. The capital, therefore, which can be employed in the grocery trade cannot exceed what is sufficient to purchase that quantity. If this capital is divided between two different grocers, their competition will tend to make both of them sell cheaper, than if it were in the hands of one only; and if it were divided among twenty, their competition would be just so much the greater, and the chance of their combining together, in order to raise the price, just so much the less. Their competition might perhaps ruin some of themselves; but to take care of this is the business of the parties concerned, and it may be safely trusted to their discretion. It can never hurt either the consumer, or the producer; on the contrary, it must tend to make the retailers both sell cheaper and buy dearer, than if the whole trade was monopolized by one or two persons. Some of them, perhaps, may sometimes decoy a weak customer to buy what he has no occasion for. This evil, however, is of too little importance to deserve the public attention, nor would it necessarily be prevented by restricting their numbers. It is not the multitude of ale-houses, to give the most suspicious example, that occasions a general disposition to drunkenness among the common people; but that disposition arising from other causes necessarily gives employment to a multitude of ale-houses. The persons whose capitals are employed in any of those four ways are themselves productive labourers. Their labour, when properly directed, fixes and realizes itself in the subject or vendible commodity upon which it is bestowed, and generally adds to its price the value at least of their own maintenance and consumption. The profits of the farmer, of the manufacturer, of the merchant, and retailer, are all drawn from the price of the goods which the two first produce, and the two last buy and sell.

All wholesale trade, the same profound author adds, all buying in order to sell again by wholesale, may be reduced to three different

ferent sorts : The Home Trade, the Foreign Trade of Consumption, and the Carrying Trade. The home trade is employed in purchasing in one part of the same country, and selling in another the produce of the industry of that country. It comprehends both the inland and the coasting trade. The foreign trade of consumption is employed in purchasing foreign goods for home consumption. The carrying trade is employed in transacting the commerce of foreign countries, or in carrying the surplus produce of one to another.

Under the two general heads here described, Foreign and Home Trade, the details to be afforded on the subject of commerce will be classed, and a few circumstances superadded, applying to each.

FOREIGN TRADE.

The objects for which Great Britain trades to the various countries of the globe, what produce of her soil and of her industry she transmits, and what articles she receives in return, will appear by the following table, extracted from Macpherson's Annals of Commerce, where it is intitled,

"Specification of the chief articles of merchandise which compose the trade with different countries, extracted from the books in the custom house ; those which are first introduced into Great Britain from foreign countries and afterward exported being printed in Italics."

DENMARK Imports—Oak-bark ; cordage ; corn (an unusual article) ; indigo 10,000 lbs. ; cotton 34,666 lbs. ; hides of horses and oxen ; bar iron ; kelp ; rock moss ; some salted beef, pork and butter ; furs and peltry ; tar, timber and boards of great variety of kinds.

Exports—Alum ; wrought brass, copper and iron ; lead ; tin ; tinned plates ; coals ; grindstones ; painters' colours ; earthen ware ; glass ; salt ; cotton goods ; woollen goods of all kinds ; hats ; Scottish linens above bounty, 1,250 yards ; tanned leather ; refined sugar, melasses ; train oil.

Drugs, indigo, logwood, and other dye stuffs ; coffee ; cinnamon, and other spices ; sugar ; tobacco ; cotton.

RUSSIA Imports—Pearl-ashes, pot-ashes, and weed-ashes ; bristles ; cordage ; some corn ; isinglass, rhubarb, and some other drugs ; flax and hemp ; bar iron ; cast iron ; wrought iron, 24 tons ; linens, diaper, drilling and sheeting ; pitch and tar ; bacon ; beef ; tongues ; bread ; rags only 28 tons ; lintseed ; some skins of hares, seals and calves ; bees wax, tallow 410,260 tons ; timber, boards, staves.

Exports

Exports—Alum; coals; slates; salt; sal ammoniac; spelter; lead; tin; earthen-ware; glass; wrought iron; wrought silver; woollen, cotton and silk goods of all kinds; stationary; painters' colours; cotton yarn; watches; refined sugar; musical instruments; wearing apparel; horses; herrings.

Drugs; cochineal, indigo, fustic, logwood and other dye stuffs; pepper and other spices; coffee; sugar; a few Irish linens; India calicoes, muslins, &c.; raw silk; beaver and other skins; some prize French wine.

SWEDEN Imports—Some corn and bread; flax; herrings 313 barrels; bar and cast iron; drawn and wrought iron 1½ ton; rock moss; pitch and tar; timber, board, staves, &c.

Exports—Coals; lead; tin; painters' colours; cotton and woollen goods; refined sugar.

Drugs; cochineal, indigo, and other dye stuffs; some coffee, some pepper and other spices; sugar; rum and other spirits; tobacco; some cotton; some East India calicoes, &c.

POLAND Imports—Pearl-ashes, weed-ashes; spruce beer 1,093 barrels; wheat, rye, barley, peas; some linen; boards, staves, &c.

Exports—Iron; wrought brass; cotton goods; refined sugar.

Drugs; indigo and other dye stuffs; pepper and other spices; coffee; rum; a little sugar.

PRUSSIA Imports—Pearl-ashes, weed-ashes; spruce beer 1,054 barrels; wheat, barley, oats, peas, beans, rye; flax; hemp; madder; bristles; mill-stones; wool; hides; goose-quills; lintseed; some skins; cheese; timber, board, staves, &c.

Exports—Alum; wearing apparel; beer; wrought brass and iron; coals; copperas; grindstones; lead; tin; tinned plates; painters' colours; woollen and cotton goods; earthen ware; glass; salt; some refined sugar; melasses; train oil; some cotton yarn.

Drugs; indigo; fustic, logwood and other dye stuffs; pepper, pimento, and other spices; coffee; sugar; rum; tobacco; oil; India goods; French wine.

GERMANY Imports—Oak-bark; books, maps, prints; pictures*; brimstone; 3,195 wooden clocks; cork; wheat, barley, oats, peas, beans, rye, rye-meal, wheat, flour; arsenick, antimony, and other drugs; gums; juniper berries; oil of turpentine; verdigris; copperas; succus liquoritæ; flax; hemp; goats, ox, horse hair; human hair 2,378 lbs.; hides;

* Books, maps, pictures, &c. also come from the other countries of Europe, but in smaller quantities,

hops;

hops; chip and straw hats; linens, cambrics, canvas, lawns, Holland, tabling, &c.; rags, 3,002 tons; some paper; waste paper to be remanufactured; butter and cheese; beef; pork; tongues; potatoes; goose-quills; seeds; silk, raw, thrown, and waste; wool, Spanish, &c.; bees-wax; calf, bear, coney, goat, sheep, and seal skins; brandy, geneva, and other spirits; starch; Rhenish, Tokay, French, and Spanish wines; cotton; linen yarn, above 3,000,000 lbs.; timber, boards, &c.

Exports—Alum; wearing apparel; bark; beer; books and stationary; wrought brass; copper and iron; silver-plate and plated ware; lead; pewter; tin; tinned plates*; salt; coals; earthen-ware; glass; painters' colours; copperas; oil of vitriol; sal-ammoniac, and other drugs; train oil; whale-bone; herrings, red and white; cod; oysters; refined sugar; melasses; tanned leather; wrought leather; gloves; haberdashery; hats; cotton goods to a large amount; woollen goods; silk goods; cotton yarn, value 365,945 l.; watches; musical instruments; cabinet ware; coaches; horses.

Mother of pearl; walking canes; aloes, rhubarb, borax, camphire, cassia lignea, castoreum, jalap, and other drugs; gum senegal, and other gums; cochineal, indigo, annatto, brazil, fustic, logwood, madder, and other dye-stuffs; mahogany and other West India goods; ivory; cinnamon, cloves, pepper, ginger, and other spices; cacao; coffee; sugar; tea; sago; turmeric; currants; Indian hides, ox and cow hides; skins of deer, otter, bear, fox, mink, wolf, and almost all other kinds; horns; linseed oil, and other oils; rum; brandy; arrack; French, Spanish, and other wines; tobacco; whale-bone; cotton; cotton yarn; India piece goods; a few Irish linens.

It is to be observed that much of the commerce of Germany is for account of the nations involved in war.

HOLLAND Imports—Oak bark, books, maps, drawings, paintings, prints; corn; juniper berries; flax, hemp; madder; flower roots and trees, value 1,074 l.; a few linens; butter; cheese; bacon; potatoes; seeds; geneva; rags, 61,000 tons.

Exports—Copperas; a few cotton goods; some woollen goods; refined sugar; train oil, an article formerly imported from Holland.

Foreign merchandise; nearly the same as to Germany, but less than half the quantities.

FLANDERS Imports—Tanned horse, cow, and calf hides; seeds; rags, 371 tons.

* Tinned plates, now an article of export to every country, were imported from Germany about fifty years ago.

Exports—Refined sugar; some copperas.

Foreign goods as to Germany, but in very small quantities.

FRANCE *Imports*—Books, &c.; mill-stones; verdigris; cochineal; valonia; salt, 234 weys to Scotland; seeds; brandy; starch; tallow; rye-meal; some wheat, barley, &c.; bread, 150 cwt.; beef, pork, and bacon; butter; tanned ox, cow, and calf hides.

Exports—Refined sugar; a small quantity of printed cotton and linen goods.

Cassia lignea, rhubarb, and other drugs; indigo, logwood, and other dye-stuffs; cinnamon; cloves, pepper, pimento, ginger, &c.; cacao; coffee; sugar; tobacco; India piece goods.

PORTUGAL *Imports*—Brimstone; cork; wheat and flour, very unusual exports from Portugal; balsam capivi, ipecacuanha, gum arabic, gum senegal, and other gums and drugs; annatto, orchil, argol, cochineal, brazil-wood, indigo, madder, and other dye-stuffs; 33,518,701 lemons and oranges; almonds, figs, raisins, &c.; Indian and other hides of oxen, horses, &c.; 6,000 dozen goat skins; other skins; Portugal wine, 19,328 tuns; Madeira, French, and Spanish wines; Spanish wool, 1,663,582 lbs.; cotton.

Exports—Alum; wearing apparel; beer; some books and stationary; wrought brass, copper, and iron; 1,021 cannon; bar iron, cast iron, nails; cabinet ware; coals; lead; pewter; tin; tinned plates; copperas; painters' colours; train oil; oil of vitriol; hard soap; earthen-ware; glass; refined sugar; watches; woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; a few linens; haberdashery; hats.

Barilla; brimstone; wheat, 1,584 quarters; drugs; logwood, fustic, a little indigo, and other dye-stuffs; cinnamon and cloves; some undressed flax; cotton; cacao; some sugar; bar iron; drawn and wrought iron; tar; Irish linens, value only 4,413 l.; a few German linens.

MADEIRA *Imports*—Wine, 494 tuns. (Much more is imported by circuitous routes.)

Exports—Woollen, silk, cotton, and linen manufactures; hats; wrought and cast iron; and small quantities of most kinds of goods.

Undressed flax; some Irish and a few German linens; India piece goods; brandy.

SPAIN *Imports*—Barilla; cork; beans; some wheat; black lead; succus liquoritiæ; mahogany; shumack; grapes; raisins; 10,517,750 lemons and oranges; figs; currants; chestnuts, hazel nuts, walnuts, almonds; anise seed; oil; brandy; Spanish wine 3,540 tuns; Spanish wool, 5,995,624 lbs.

Exports—No British merchandize.

Cinnamon;

Cinnamon ; cacao ; and nothing else.

CANARIES *Import*—Barilla ; copper ; some drugs and gums ; orchil ; Canary wine, 47 tuns ; Spanish wine, 553 tuns.

Export—Nothing.

STRAITS *Import*—Currants ; some drugs ; some dye-stuffs.

Export—Nothing.

GIBRALTAR *Imports*—Barilla ; brimstone ; quicksilver ; cochineal, indigo, and other dye-stuffs ; almonds, raisins, and other fruits ; oil ; Portugal, Spanish, Italian, Cyprus, and Madeira wines ; Spanish wool, 33,748 lbs. ; cotton.

Exports—Beer ; wrought brass and iron ; tinned plates ; woollen goods ; a few linens ; cotton goods to a considerable amount ; hats ; wrought leather ; stationary and some books ; pilchards and a few other fish ; refined sugar ; coals ; cabinet-ware ; and all kinds of necessaries, the place itself producing nothing.

Cinnamon, cloves, pepper, and other spices ; coffee ; sugar ; tea ; butter ; rum ; geneva ; tobacco ; some German, Irish, and Russia linens ; India piece goods.

ITALY, including VENICE, *Imports*—Books, drawings, &c. ; barilla ; brimstone ; cork ; cream of tartar, essence of lemons, manna, senna, succus liquoritiæ, and other drugs ; juniper berries ; perfumed oil ; argol, galls, madder, shumack, valonia and other dye-stuffs ; anchovies ; almonds, figs, prunes, nuts, &c ; currants ; raisins ; ordinary and fallad oil ; cheese, 439 cwt. ; chip and straw hats ; bugles ; silk, raw, thrown, and waste ; rags, 695 tons ; lamb skins undressed ; goats and kids skins raw and dressed ; brandy ; statues, valued at 1,368 l. ; marble, cotton.

Exports—Alum * ; wrought brass, iron, and silver ; plated ware ; woollen goods of all sorts ; cotton goods to a considerable amount ; a few linens ; earthen ware ; glass ; hardware ; tinned plates ; pilchards, 32,881 hhds. ; red and white herrings ; dry cod ; tanned leather ; wrought leather.

Cochineal, indigo, fustic, logwood, and other dye-stuffs ; cinnamon, cloves, pepper, ginger, &c ; cacao ; coffee ; sugar ; bar and plate iron ; India piece goods ; ox guts ; rum ; tar ; tobacco ; whalebone †.

MINORCA *Imports*—Barilla ; lemons and oranges ; ordinary oil ; thrown silk ; cotton ; wool.

* In the middle ages Genoa supplied all Europe with alum.

† What would the merchants of Italy in the middle ages have said to any person who would have ventured to predict, that a country, which they knew good for nothing but feeding sheep and cattle, and furnishing wool, hides, lead, and tin, should ever supply them with Oriental produce and manufactures, and many other comforts and luxuries of life

Exports—A few woollen goods ; some herrings ; some refined sugar ; several other articles of less than 1,000*l.* each in value.

Sugar ; rum ; geneva ; some spicery.

TURKEY Imports—Carpets ; copper ; cuculus Indiæ, tragacanth, opium, fenna, and other drugs ; berries, galls, madder, valonia and other dye-stuffs ; boxwood ; currants, figs, raisins, and other fruits ; goats' hair ; mohair ; goats' skins ; raw silk ; cotton ; cotton yarn.

Exports—Lead ; tin ; tinned plates ; 170 cannon, and other wrought iron ; watches ; some cotton goods ; woollen goods.

Cochineal, indigo, and other dye-stuffs ; some cinnamon, cloves, pimento, and other spices ; coffee ; sugar ; India piece goods.

MALTA Imports—Nothing.

Exports—A small quantity of beer in bottles, hitherto the only article of export.

IRELAND Imports—Pearl-ashes ; wood ashes ; books, valued at 777*l.* ; cows, oxen, horses, mules, sheep, swine ; ox, cow, and horse hides ; calf and goat skins ; copper ore ; cork ; feathers ; some flax ; glue ; beef ; pork ; bacon ; lard ; tallow ; butter ; a few potatoes ; starch ; tobacco ; linen, 32,152,399 yards ; some cambrics and diapers ; linen yarn ; woollen yarn ; linseed ; rape feed ; tobacco ; some cotton ; some wines, chiefly of Portugal.

Exports—Alum ; apothecaries' ware ; wearing apparel ; bark ; beer ; books and stationary ; wrought brass and wire ; wrought copper ; cabinet wares ; horses ; coals, value about 360,000*l.*, mostly from Scotland ; red and white lead, and other painters' colours, oil, varnish, &c ; copperas ; cordage ; woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures of all kinds ; hats, mostly felt ; haberdashery ; lace ; a few Paisley goods ; cotton yarn ; tan leather ; wrought leather ; cast and bar iron ; steel ; ironmongery, and hardware ; hoops for barrels ; cyder ; dry cod ; herrings, about 106,000 barrels, mostly from Scotland ; earthen ware ; bottles and window glass ; hops ; lead ; tin ; tinned plates ; silver and plated ware ; sail-cloth ; refined sugar ; melasses ; rock moss ; salt ; cheese ; garden and grass seeds ; train oil ; oil of vitriol ; stone and slate for building ; tobacco pipes ; cotton yarn, value 80,458*l.* ; other kinds of goods in quantities not of 1,000*l.* value.

Pearl-ashes ; pot-ashes ; weed-ashes ; barilla ; brimstone ; some wheat and flour ; drugs and gums of all kinds ; indigo, madder, redwood, safflower, and other dye-stuffs ; mahogany and other woods ; flax undressed ; tow ; hemp ; pepper and some other spiceries ; currants ; sugar ; tea ; bar iron ; saltpetre ; silk, raw and thrown ; skins of deer and other animals ; rum ; brandy geneva some

wines ;

wines ; tobacco, and almost every other article, though in quantities under 1,000 l.

ISLE OF MAN *Imports*—Herrings, red 5,641 barrels, white 15,417 barrels ; some plain Irish linen, and some linen yarn.

Exports—Coals ; flour ; some cotton goods ; woollen goods ; salt ; wrought iron ; other articles in small quantities.

Flax undressed ; sugar ; tea ; other groceries ; rum, &c.

GUERNSEY, JERSEY, ALDERNEY, &c. *Import*—Guernsey is a kind of store-house for merchandize imported from foreign countries and lodged there, in order to save the advance of the duties, till they are wanted ; and hence the imports consist of all kinds of foreign goods, but chiefly Portugal, French, and Spanish wines, brandy, &c. also some dye-stuffs and drugs ; paving stones, cyder ; worsted stockings from Jersey, 5,935 dozen pairs.

Exports—Cows and oxen, 196 to Alderney ; flour and some corn ; wearing apparel ; tallow candles ; coals ; cordage ; painters' colours ; cotton goods ; silk goods ; some woollen goods ; haberdashery ; some herrings and other fish ; earthen ware ; bottles, and other glass ; wrought iron, hoops, and hardware ; silver ware ; tanned and wrought leather ; rock salt ; beef, pork, and other provisions ; soap ; refined sugar ; stationary and some books ; sail cloth ; wool, 2,007 tods to Jersey.

Logwood, and some other dye-stuffs ; drugs ; sugar ; tea ; India piece goods ; German, Irish, and Russia linens ; corn, flour, and meal ; rum ; geneva.

GREENLAND *Imports*—Train oil ; spermaceti oil ; whale-bone, seal-skins.

Exports—Rum for ship stores.

NEW ENGLAND *Imports*—Pearl-ashes ; pot-ashes ; flour ; some Indian corn and rye meal ; saffraas ; shumack ; spermaceti oil ; whale-bone ; turpentine ; some tar and rosin ; timber, chiefly oak, fir and staves ; Indian hides, deer skins, and other Indian peltry—also cochineal, indigo, fustic, logwood, redwood, lignum vitæ, mahogany, sugar, coffee, cotton, rice, tobacco, obtained in trade with the West Indies, and Southern States, and imported mostly in New England vessels.

Exports—Books and stationary ; wrought brass, copper and iron ; pewter ; lead ; tin ; tinned plates ; coals ; salt ; earthen ware ; glass ; woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures ; beaver, felt, and chip hats ; thread ; haberdashery ; linens.

A few drugs ; some dye-stuffs ; cinnamon, and some other spices ; Irish linens ; India piece goods.

NEW YORK *Imports*—Pearl-ashes ; pot-ashes ; wheat ; flour ; some Indian corn and meal ; ginseng ; snake-root ; sarsaparilla ;

sassafras; tar; turpentine; oil of turpentine; rosin; staves and some timber. Also the produce of the West Indies and Southern States, as New England.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; wearing apparel; books and stationary; wrought brass, copper, iron, and silver; pewter; lead; steel; tinned plates; copperas; painters' colours; coals; salt; earthen-ware; bottles and window glass; hardware; guns; gunpowder; flints; woollen goods in considerable quantities; cotton goods; some Scottish linens; silk goods; beaver, and felt-hats; haberdashery; watches; musical instruments.

Drugs and dye-stuffs in small quantities; Irish linens; a few Russia linens; India piece goods; geneva.

PENNSYLVANIA *Imports*—Bark of oak and quercitron; books; some wheat, flour, corn, &c.; ginseng; snake-root; sarsaparilla; sassafras; horse hides; tanned ox hides; turpentine; some tar, pitch, and rosin; skins of bears and deer, and other Indian peltry. Also the produce of the West Indies and Southern States, as New England.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; books and stationary; wrought brass, copper, iron; steel; pewter; tinned plates; painters' colours; salt; earthen-ware; glass; hardware; guns; a little gun-powder; woollen goods in considerable quantities; cotton and silk goods; some linen and sail cloth; beaver and felt-hats; thread; haberdashery; watches.

Some drugs and dye-stuffs; some spicery and grocery; Irish linens; a few Russia linens; India piece goods.

VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND *Import*—Flour; some wheat, Indian corn, and meal, and rye; some pot-ashes, and a small quantity of pearl-ashes, from Virginia; ginseng, and some other native drugs, in smaller quantities than from the Northern States; tobacco; tar; pitch; turpentine; rosin; staves; and some other lumber; deer skins, and other Indian peltry. Also West India produce, as New England, &c.

Export—Apothecaries' ware; wearing apparel; beer; stationary and some books; wrought brass, copper, iron, and silver; steel; pewter; lead; tinned plates; painters' colours; salt; earthen-ware; some glass; grind-stones; hardware; guns; a little gun-powder; woollen goods in considerable quantities; cotton goods; a few linens; silk goods; beaver and felt hats.

Some drugs and dye-stuffs; Irish linens; some Russia, and German linens; a few India piece goods.

NORTH CAROLINA *Imports*—A small quantity of flour and corn; tar; rosin; turpentine; some oil of turpentine; tobacco; staves; some deer, and other skins. Also some West India produce.

Exports—Pretty near the same articles as to Virginia and Maryland, but all in smaller quantities, this state being less populous; and great part of its imports and exports being in the ports of Virginia and South Carolina.

A few Irish linens.

SOUTH CAROLINA Imports—Some flour, Indian corn, and rye and meal; rice; indigo (probably West Indian); some pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, and turpentine oil, mostly the produce of North Carolina; staves; some cedar timber; deer and other skins; some cotton, the produce of Georgia. Also some West India produce.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; beer; books and stationary; wrought brass, copper, iron, and silver; lead; pewter; painters' colours; salt; earthen-ware; glass; hardware; wrought leather; woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; some linens, chiefly bounty; beaver and felt hats; haberdashery; musical instruments.

Some drugs and dye-stuffs; cinnamon; Irish linen; some German and a few Russia linens; India piece goods; some French wines; some other wines.

GEORGIA Imports—Rice; tobacco; a little indigo; some staves; cedar, and bickory timber; deer skins and other skins. Also some West Indian produce.

Exports—Wrought iron; pewter; some earthen-ware and glass; hard-ware; woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; some bounty linens; beaver, and felt hats; haberdashery; cordage.

Irish linens; a few German and Russia linens; a few articles of grocery.

HUDSON'S BAY Imports—Beaver, mink, otter, wolf, deer, bear, and fox skins; bed feathers, 90 cwt.; castoreum.

Exports—A few coarse woollens for the Indians; guns; gunpowder; some wrought iron; provisions for the company's people in the factories or forts.

Tobacco; and small quantities of rum, sugar, and groceries.

NEWFOUNDLAND Imports—Cod-fish, 24 tons; train oil; some skins, chiefly of seals. Also some West India produce. The fish is mostly carried direct to the Roman-Catholic countries of Europe.

Exports—Salt; wrought iron and hoops; wrought leather; cordage; sail-cloth; a few linens; some woollen goods; a few cotton goods; some haberdashery; wearing apparel; soap; wrought leather; bread, and other provisions.

Tea; groceries in small quantities; white salt; beef; pork; butter; tobacco; wines, Portugal, French, &c; geneva; canals; German linens; a few Irish and Russia linens.

CANADA Imports—Pearl ashes; pot ashes; wheat; flour; castoreum; essence of spruce; train oil; beaver, cat, deer, fox, martin, mink, musquash, otter, racoon, wolf, and wolvereen
L 4 skins;

skins; masts, boards, staves, and some other lumber. Also some cotton, dying woods, &c. got by circuitous trade.

Exports—Salt; wrought brass; copper; steel; guns; gunpowder; flints; books; coals; earthen-ware; glass; wrought leather; woollen goods, mostly coarse, for Indian trade; cotton and silk goods; a few linens, mostly bounty; beaver and felt hats; haberdashery; soap; train oil; refined sugar; tobacco pipes.

A few drugs and dye stuffs; some spices and groceries; a little bar iron; Russia linens; some Irish, and a few other linens.

NEW BRUNSWICK *Imports*—Masts; staves; some other lumber in small quantities; some skins.

Exports—Wrought iron; cordage; some woollen and cotton goods; a few silk goods; a few linens; hats; haberdashery.

Bar iron; tea; a few spiceries and groceries; Irish linens; a few Russia and other linens; a few India piece goods; wine and rum in small quantities.

NOVA SCOTIA *Imports*—Some lumber; some pearl ashes; tar and turpentine in small quantities; some skins. Also some West India goods, chiefly obtained by captures.

Exports—Iron and ironmongery; hardware; earthenware; glass; salt; beer; tallow candles; soap; cordage; some woollen, cotton, and silk goods; some linens; hats, mostly felt; wrought leather.

A few drugs, groceries, and spiceries; tea; beef; pork; butter; Irish linens; a few Russia and other linens; India piece goods in small quantities; brandy; rum; geneva; Portugal and Spanish wines.

BERMUDA *Imports*—A small quantity of cotton. All the other imports from this island consist of prize goods, and a few trifling articles obtained in the way of trade.

Exports—Wrought iron and copper; some cotton and woollen goods; a few linens.

Some groceries; Irish, Russia, and German linens, all small quantities.

BAHAMA ISLANDS *Import*—Cotton, 707,454 lbs.; braziletto; box-wood; lignum vitæ; cedar; mahogany;—also some of the same woods, logwood, nicaragua, hides, tobacco, &c. obtained from other countries; and various goods obtained by wrecking and privateering.

Export—Wrought brass, copper, iron, and silver; pewter; watches; gold, silver, &c.; beer; cotton goods; silk goods; some woollen goods; linens; hats; haberdashery; cordage; soap.

Cinnamon, cloves, and other spices; tea, groceries; German linens; some Irish and a few Russia, linens; India piece goods; brandy, geneva; a little wine.

BRITISH WEST INDIA SUGAR ISLANDS *Import*—Sugar; rum; small quantities of melasses; cotton; coffee; cacao, or chocolate

chocolate nuts ; ginger ; pimento ; indigo ; braziletto ; log-wood ; mahogany ; fustic ; cedar ; ebony ; yellow wood ; lignum vitæ ; quassia ; gum guaiacum, castor-oil, sarsaparilla, turmeric, and some other drugs ; Cayenne pepper ; tamarinds ; some turtle shell. Also hides, cotton, cacao, and other foreign West India produce obtained by trade and by war ; and wines carried from Madeira and other countries for the improvement acquired by the voyage.

Export—Wrought copper, iron, brass, pewter, silver, &c ; watches, gold, silver, &c. chiefly to Jamaica ; cotton goods ; some woollen goods ; linens, mostly low priced ; checks, Osna-burg, &c. in large quantities ; hats ; flour ; corn of various kinds ; beef ; pork ; butter ; cheese ; herrings ; beer in considerable quantities ; and, in short, every article of food and cloathing, furniture, ship chandlery, military stores, coals for firing, and every article of accommodation and luxury.

Groceries ; drugs ; Irish, German, and Russia linens in considerable quantities, especially to Jamaica. India piece goods ; some wines.

CONQUERED FRENCH AND DUTCH WEST INDIA COLONIES

Import—The same produce as the British islands, only very little rum from any of them, except Tobago, which being a British colony, is cultivated in the British manner.

Export—British and foreign merchandize, as to the British sugar islands.

CONQUERED SPANISH ISLAND OF TRINIDAD *Imports*—Sugar, about 55,000 cwt. ; rum, 2,999 gallons ; cotton, 773,973 lbs. ; indigo, 75,367 lbs. ; fustic ; lignum vitæ ; a little turtle shell ; 55,815 hides.

Exports—Considerable quantities of linen and cotton goods ; provisions, &c. as to the British islands.

Irish, German, and Russia linens.

BUENOS AYRES *Imports*—Unwrought copper ; vultures' feathers ; hides.

Exports—Nothing.—N.B. This was written before the conquest of that colony, but at present, the exports are very extensive, consisting of almost every manufactured article produced in Great Britain.

CAYENNE *Imports*—Dye-stuffs ; hard wood ; hides ; all in trifling quantities.

Exports—Nothing.

CUBA *Imports*—Sugar ; fustic ; mahogany ; all in trifling quantities.

Exports—Nothing.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW *Imports*—Indigo ; nicaragua wood ; cacao ; coffee ; cotton ; some sugar.

Exports—A few linens, and cotton goods ; earthen-ware ; glass.

ST.

ST. CROIX *Imports*—Sugar ; cotton ; some fustic and lignum vitæ.

Exports—Nothing.

ST. DOMINGO *Imports*—Sugar ; fustic ; logwood ; mahogany ; hides.

Exports—Nothing.

ST. MARTIN *Imports*—Salt ;

Exports—Nothing.

ST. THOMAS *Imports*—Sugar ; coffee ; cacao ; cotton ; indigo ; annotto ; logwood ; fustic ; nicaragua wood ; mahogany ; some hides ; turtle shell.

Exports—British merchandize, as to the British Islands.

Some cinnamon and pepper ; a few German and Irish linens ; some wine.

BAY OF HONDURAS *Imports*—Mahogany ; some logwood ; a little fustic ; a little cedar ; a small quantity of turtle shell.

Exports—A few of the articles usually carried to the West Indies.

Some Irish linens ; beef ; pork ; rum ; wine ; all in small quantities.

FLORIDA* *Imports*—Indigo ; cotton ; train oil ; spermaceti oil ; whale-bone ; skins of seals and sea elephants ; hides ; Indian peltry.

Exports—Some wrought iron ; a few woollen goods, chiefly flannels ; linens, chiefly low priced ; cotton goods.

German linens ; Irish bounty linens ; a few India piece goods.

NOOTKA *Imports*—The sea otter furs, the only article of trade in this country, are all carried to China.

Exports—Some woollen and cotton goods ; linens ; hats ; earthen-ware ; glass ; wrought iron ; watches.

Coffee ; sugar ; tea ; bar-iron ; cambricks ; muslins ; tobacco ; rum ; wine ; all in small quantities.

ASIA OR EAST INDIA AND CHINA *Import*—Books ; canes ; drugs, gums and oils of a great variety of kinds ; indigo in large quantities ; cochineal ; China ink ; galls ; turmeric ; seed lack ; shell lack ; stick lack ; ivory ; fans ; cane mats ; cinnamon ; cloves ; mace ; nutmeg ; pepper ; Cayenne pepper ; ginger ; sago ; sugar ; tea ; a little rice ; coffee ; preserved fruits ; mother of pearl shell, and spoons made of it ; cowries ; cornelian stones for seals ; salt-petre ; arrack ; cotton ; cotton yarn ; Carmania, and goats wool ; raw silk of Bengal and China ; calicoes and muslins of great variety of kinds ; great variety of piece goods destined for exportation, the consumption of them

* Ever since the peace of 1763 a few houses in London have carried on a trade with Florida, by sending British vessels, under licences obtained from the British and Spanish governments ; and the war has not interrupted the trade. The cotton of that country is of the quality of the upland cotton of Georgia, but much inferior to the sea island cotton of that state.

in Great Britain being prohibited ; cassia ; ebony ; sandal ; fatin and sapan woods ; some wines carried from other countries.

Export—Apothecaries' ware ; books, value 14,836 *l.* ; pictures and prints ; stationary ; wrought and unwrought iron, steel, lead, and tin ; wrought brass, copper, pewter, and silver ; tin plate ware ; brass and iron cannon, and other military stores ; coals ; earthen-ware ; glass ; painters' colours, oils, varnish, &c. ; cordage ; sail-cloth ; ship chandlery of all kinds to a large amount, many vessels being built in India ; leather tanned and wrought ; provisions ; beer ; woollen goods ; silk goods ; linens ; some cotton goods, 8,000 yards of British muslins ; wearing apparel ; hats ; haberdashery ; coaches, chaises, &c. ; wax and tallow candles.

Cortex Peruvianus, ginseng, and other drugs ; a few groceries ; chochineal ; a little coral ; Irish linens ; German linens ; tutenague ; tar ; rum ; brandy ; geneva ; French, Portugal, Rhenish, and Spanish wines ; sandal wood, and some other woods.

NEW HOLLAND Imports—A little wood ; some birds.

Exports—Wrought iron ; woollen, silk, cotton and linen goods ; hardware.

Some groceries ; spirits, and wine, all in small quantities ; Russia linens.

AFRICA Imports—Gum arabic, sandrake and senegal ; camwood ; ebony ; redwood ; ivory ; a few ostrich feathers ; some skins.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware ; wrought brass ; copper, iron ; 80,806 guns ; cutlasses ; gun-powder ; spirituous liquors ; earthen-ware ; glass ; provisions ; beer ; woollen, cotton and linen goods ; wearing apparel.

Bar iron ; bugles ; cowries ; sugar ; tea ; groceries ; rice ; rum ; brandy ; geneva ; Irish and German linens ; India piece goods to a large amount.

SIERRA LEONE Imports—Nothing.

Exports—Cotton and linen goods ; a few woollen goods ; leather ; hardware.

Some India piece goods ; a few Irish and other linens ; groceries ; tobacco, &c. ; all in small quantities.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE Imports—Some wine, cotton and skins.

Exports—Articles proper for the climate, of almost every kind. Drugs ; grocery ; linens ; some provisions ; rum ; brandy ; geneva ; tobacco ; some wine ; all in trifling quantities.

SOUTHERN FISHERY Imports—Nothing.

Exports—Brandy, geneva, and wine in small quantities, being only for ship stores.

The following Tables will exhibit the number of vessels and men employed in all parts of the United Kingdom in one year in carrying on its commerce.

An

An Account of the Number of Vessels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the same (including their repeated Voyages) which entered inwards and cleared outwards, in the several Ports of England, from, or to, all Parts of the World, in the aggregate for the Year ending 5th January 1805; distinguishing British from Foreign Vessels, and the Countries from which the said Vessels arrived, or to which they were bound.

England. Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
	British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
America { British Colonies	208	36674	1998	—	—	—	297	50662	3128	—	—	—
{ United States	38	9578	552	329	81531	3956	34	8106	478	382	93927	4605
Africa	35	8788	698	3	228	21	166	38822	5222	10	2017	129
Barbary	5	621	30	1	300	17	2	190	16	—	—	—
Botany Bay, or New } South Wales	1	438	38	—	—	—	1	222	25	—	—	—
Dantzic	165	32484	1404	104	25679	985	42	8436	394	41	12113	496
Denmark and Norway	377	46181	3229	730	137466	7112	579	92034	4957	809	132927	6922
East Indies	46	43503	4699	1	281	23	63	58476	6419	—	—	—
Flanders	—	—	—	1	70	3	—	—	—	1	124	6
Florida	1	184	10	23	4898	241	1	151	9	11	2328	127
France	—	—	—	67	10301	501	—	—	—	9	1025	55
Germany	39	5285	286	136	14023	694	86	16207	769	181	23253	1093
Gibraltar and Streights	25	4267	207	1	60	3	46	6396	393	11	1968	104
Greenland and Davis's } Streights	84	25606	3357	—	—	—	77	23790	3011	—	—	—

Guernsey, Jersey, Alder- ney, &c.	487	37544	2193	3	252	15	744	49399	3128	2	244	13
Hamburg	—	1989	103	4	1046	57	—	—	—	8	1654	75
Holland	4	6736	362	723	55700	3162	—	—	—	517	40354	2517
Honduras (Bay of)	26	805	85	—	—	7	21	6041	387	—	—	—
Hudson's Bay	4	395587	21986	—	—	—	3	814	60	—	—	—
Ireland	4067	11734	1092	36	5341	272	4492	456165	24954	1	67	4
Isle of Man	347	4956	311	1	116	8	342	13126	1008	—	—	—
Italy	29	4334	235	44	8468	469	16	2432	168	109	19535	1024
Malta	19	—	—	—	—	—	19	2751	186	2	450	32
Nootka Sound	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	194	29
Portugal and Madeira	217	33884	1881	131	16019	1012	188	29635	1799	115	19089	1120
Prussia	542	121833	5283	1167	132050	5853	288	62180	2832	1182	132059	6364
Russia	651	143893	6211	24	8163	321	440	96594	4394	53	10421	461
Southern Fishery	36	10773	869	—	—	—	49	14283	1397	—	—	—
Spain and Canaries	20	3124	157	224	33903	1813	21	2916	183	254	39422	2196
Sweden	57	8923	466	137	22156	1262	66	10235	576	124	19408	1064
Turkey	13	2877	155	3	557	31	1	266	15	—	—	—
West Indies { British	444	136180	7642	—	—	—	502	154455	9343	—	—	—
Conquered	163	40835	2469	2	333	24	170	44012	2765	—	—	—
Foreign	23	5328	563	5	1104	76	—	—	—	5	691	42
Total in 1804	8173	1184944	68571	3901	560195	27938	8756	1248796	78016	3828	553267	28478
1803	9302	1368678	77209	3898	590129	30925	8838	1237460	78188	3453	543330	28703

An Account of the Number of Vessels with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the same (including their repeated Voyages, which entered inwards and cleared outwards in the several Ports of Scotland, from, or to, all Parts of the World, in the aggregate, for the Year ending January 5, 1804, and detailed for the Year ending January 5, 1805; distinguishing British from Foreign Vessels, and the Countries from whence the said Vessels arrived, or to which they were bound.

Scotland.	Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
		British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
		Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
America	{ British Colonies	62	11515	697	—	—	—	87	16838	1223	—	—	—
	{ United States	34	7665	463	34	8049	402	24	5632	367	30	6851	355
Dantzic	-	4	321	21	—	—	—	5	515	30	—	—	—
Denmark and Norway	-	83	8284	488	228	27476	1761	134	16714	1233	162	20155	1243
Florida	-	—	—	—	1	153	8	—	—	—	1	153	8
Gibraltar and Streights	-	1	135	8	—	—	—	4	454	27	1	249	13
Germany	-	13	1676	94	1	95	6	30	3789	201	3	416	22
Greenland and Davis's Streights	-	14	3885	521	—	—	—	15	4244	586	—	—	—
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, &c.	-	7	1025	49	—	—	—	6	690	40	—	—	—

Honduras (Bay of)	2	415	28	63	5613	—	—	3	855	52	—	4	—	—	—	—	—
Holland	—	—	—	63	5613	328	—	—	—	—	—	4	461	—	—	—	29
Ireland	—	—	—	2	263	15	—	1656	101114	7704	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Malta	1	155	10	—	—	—	—	2	258	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Isle of Man	14	712	49	—	—	—	—	30	1203	90	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Italy	3	408	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	249	—	—	—	11
Poland	5	566	27	—	—	—	—	1	71	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Portugal and Madeira	24	3796	237	—	—	—	—	9	1141	81	—	2	286	—	—	—	12
Prussia	178	27200	1384	24	2190	114	—	102	14704	772	—	50	4289	—	—	—	255
Russia	179	22036	1230	5	1404	65	—	118	14028	811	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spain and Canaries	2	242	13	3	565	29	—	6	963	51	—	2	247	—	—	—	15
Sweden	49	3908	242	9	1296	78	—	30	3084	189	—	9	1228	—	—	—	66
West India	51	13049	809	—	—	—	—	77	20211	1582	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Colonies	33	7582	536	—	—	—	—	36	7982	671	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Foreign	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total in 1804	2335	210443	14408	370	47104	2806	—	2375	214490	15732	—	265	34582	—	—	—	2029
1803	2694	245692	15795	354	47905	2735	—	2234	207380	14752	—	209	31212	—	—	—	1711

An Account of the Number of Vessels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the same, (including their repeated Voyages,) which entered inwards, and cleared outwards, in the several Ports of Ireland, from, or to, all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January 1804, and the 5th of January 1805, distinguishing Irish, British, and Foreign Vessels, and the Countries from whence the said Vessels arrived, or to which they were bound.

Ireland. Countries.	Inwards.									General Total of all Vessels entered In- wards.		
	Irish.			British.			Foreign.					
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.			
Canaries	3	205	17	—	—	—	2	264	13	5	469	30
Denmark and Norway	27	4061	217	179	20750	1149	196	32423	2020	402	57234	3386
France	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	1217	106	12	1217	106
Germany	—	—	—	1	96	6	11	1871	109	12	1967	115
Holland	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	3314	215	25	3314	215
Italy	1	100	8	—	—	—	4	44	40	5	644	48
Madeiras	1	31	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	31	4
Portugal	11	1705	92	25	2958	186	67	644	619	103	11207	897
Prussia	4	611	27	51	10218	456	35	5699	338	90	16528	821

Russia	-	5	713	40	37	485	269	-	-	42	5598	309
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40	5287	40	5287	334
Streights and Gibraltar	-	3	310	23	1	181	8	-	-	4	491	31
Sweden	-	-	-	-	2	129	9	41	4924	43	5053	370
Total Foreign Europe		55	7736	428	296	39217	2083	433	62087	784	109040	6666
England	-	745	55949	3577	4483	467294	24421	5	317	5233	523560	28030
Guernsey	-	6	172	26	18	1190	86	-	-	24	1362	112
Jersey	-	-	-	-	6	370	28	-	-	6	370	28
Man, Isle	-	2	62	8	30	1078	114	-	-	32	1140	122
Scotland	-	397	20127	1678	1363	92304	6302	-	-	1760	112431	7980
Total British Europe		1150	76310	5289	5900	562236	30951	5	317	7055	638863	36272
America	-	38	6495	399	46	9165	519	96	17374	180	33034	1913
Total of all parts		1243	90541	6116	6242	610618	33553	534	79778	8019	780937	44851

Ireland.	Countries.	Outwards.										General Total of all Vessels cleared Outwards.	
		Irish.			British.			Foreign.					
		Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.			
	Canaries	1	46	4	1	85	8	2	502	28	4	633	40
	Denmark and Norway	19	2913	140	53	8200	397	161	27017	1655	233	38130	2192
	France	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	283	22	3	283	22
	Germany	1	156	4	—	—	—	2	198	14	3	354	18
	Holland	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	174	7	1	174	7
	Italy	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	1155	72	8	1155	72
	Madeira	1	31	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	31	3
	Portugal	11	1422	88	9	1104	65	129	15373	1132	149	17899	1285
	Prussia	1	240	10	4	916	40	24	4029	237	29	5185	287
	Russia	4	715	35	5	1024	45	1	257	12	10	1996	92
	Spain	1	165	9	—	—	—	69	9256	629	70	9421	638
	Streights and Gibraltar	6	530	42	—	—	—	3	383	30	9	913	72
	Sweden	—	—	—	1	62	4	5	585	42	6	647	46
	Total Foreign Europe	45	6218	335	73	11391	559	408	59212	3880	526	76821	4774
	England	569	46053	2972	3665	382225	20451	39	4991	327	4273	433269	23714
	Guernsey	4	196	20	13	1063	62	—	—	—	17	1259	82
	Jersey	1	24	3	9	527	40	—	—	—	10	551	43
	Man, Isle	28	613	133	40	1299	143	—	—	—	68	1921	276
	Scotland	373	19040	1752	1065	74720	4934	2	329	15	1440	94089	6701
	Total British Europe	975	65926	4880	4792	459834	25594	41	5320	342	5808	531080	30816
	America	60	10790	617	148	35952	2184	75	13183	796	283	59925	3597
	Total of all parts	1080	82934	5832	5013	507177	28337	531	78971	5093	6624	669082	39262

NAVIGATION ACTS. The origin of those wise and patriotic statutes, known by the name of Navigation Acts, has been already mentioned in vol. ii. p. 226, and it is intended in this place to fulfil the promise made in that part of the work, of giving a more particular account of these regulations. It has already been observed that the clamour of foreign nations against the navigation act of England, as the invention of Cromwell, is utterly without foundation. "The navigation system of Great Britain," says Lord Sheffield, its able and patriotic defender, "has not been the work of an hour, or of a day; but has its decided sanction from experience and from time, and has been brought to maturity by the growth of centuries. We are told of the vigour of Cromwell, and the animosity of St. John *, and resentment against the Dutch. But the navigation laws of England had a much earlier commencement; and the principle on which they were founded is to be traced in the early maritime systems of Europe, and was adopted not only in our charters for founding colonies in America, but long before those charters were in existence. The celebrated navigation code of Venice and Genoa, at the time those wealthy republics enjoyed comparatively the commerce of the world, collected in the *consolato del mare*, was very early introduced, and seems almost the original of the English system. It was evidently a very great extension of, and improvement on the maritime system of ancient Rhodes, whose naval laws were so far distinguished as to have been adopted by the Romans. Even so far back as the 5th of Richard II. it was ordained, "that no merchandize shall be shipped out of the realm, but in British ships, on pain of forfeiture;" and, though, subsequent to that period, for about one hundred years, in consequence of the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, there was little attention paid to maritime regulations by the policy of the times, the principles of the navigation system occupied the care and attention of succeeding legislatures, until they were completely arranged and established in one salutary code. In 1646, the first act was passed for more effectually securing the trade of the British colonies in the West Indies to British shipping. In 1651, the act, commonly called Cromwell's Act, was passed; and another act was passed in 1660, for the encouragement of British navigation, but incomparably better digested, and of more extensive import. This act, by which the most decisive protection was afforded to the carrying trade and shipping interests of the empire, has been justly term-

* St. John having brought proposals to the government of Holland, which were haughtily refused, and having been, besides, as he thought, personally insulted by the States, loudly and effectually solicited the English council of state to pass the noble act of 1651. Ludlow's Mem. vol. i. p. 345.

ed by sir Josiah Child* the Charta Maritima of England; and Pensionary De Wit speaks of it as likely, in its operation, "to deprive Holland of a great proportion of its trade." It is especially and most wisely provided by this act, that the Dutch merchants, who had hitherto been openly employed as agents or factors in the British colonies, "shall no longer exercise the occupation of merchants or factors in those places."

From that moment the foreign outcry against that act was heard. By the Dutch, who had in a great degree monopolized the carrying trade, it was termed "a vile act and order;" and by the French it was loudly opposed and decried. But the same spirit and wisdom by which they were planned continued to maintain them; and the time, I trust, is not at hand, when they shall be renounced or suspended, by a temporizing policy, to quiet foreign solicitation, or foreign menaces."

Of this great charter of the British naval interest as passed in 1660, the principal enacting clauses are: 1. No goods or commodities whatsoever shall be imported into, or exported from, any of the king's lands, islands, plantations, or territories, in Asia, Africa, or America, in any other than English, Irish, or plantation built ships, and whereof the master and at least three fourths of the mariners shall be Englishmen, under forfeiture of ship and goods. 2. None but natural born subjects, or naturalized, shall henceforth exercise the occupation of a merchant or factor in those places under forfeiture of goods and chattels †. 3. No goods of the growth, product, or manufacture, of Asia, Africa, or America, shall be imported into England, but in such ships as do truly belong to English people, either here or in the king's lands or plantations in those parts, and navigated as in the first clause above †. 4. No goods or commodities of foreign growth, production, or manufacture, which shall be brought into England, Ireland, Jersey, or Guernsey, &c. other than in ships built and navigated as aforesaid, shall be shipped from any other place but the place of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from those ports where they can only be, or usually have been, brought, under forfeiture of ship and goods §.

* "Without this act," says sir Josiah, "we had not now [1688] been owners of one half of the shipping and trade, nor should we have employed one half of the seamen which we do at present."

† This is an improvement upon the act of navigation of 1651. It was common to have Dutch merchants acting as factors and agents in English colonies.

‡ This clause secured the East-India, Guinea, and Levant companies, and also the American colonies, from foreign ships.

§ So lately as about the year 1755, twelve ships from Appenrade in Denmark were guilty of a breach of this clause by bringing timber to Liverpool, not of the growth of Denmark, and were obliged to compound for their delinquency; as were also two other ships from the same port next year for timber brought into Leith. So necessary is it for merchants to be acquainted with the mercantile laws of the countries they propose to trade to.

5. Such

5. Such salted fish, train oil, and whale fins (as have been usually caught, &c. by the English or Irish) not caught, cured, &c. by English or Irish, nor imported in vessels truly English and navigated as above, shall pay double aliens' customs. 6. No goods or provisions shall be carried coast-wise, from one English port to another, in vessels whereof any stranger, not naturalized, is owner in whole or in part, and which shall not be navigated as before. 7. No goods of the growth, &c. of Russia, as also no masts, timber, or boards, foreign salt, pitch, tar, rosin, hemp, flax, raisins, figs, prunes, olive oil, corn, sugar, potash, wines, vinegar, and spirits, shall be imported in any ships but such whereof the true owners are English, and navigated as aforesaid; nor any currants, or other goods of the Turks dominions, but in English built ships, and navigated as aforesaid; excepting only such foreign ships as are built of that country of which the said goods are the growth, &c. or of such port where the foresaid goods can only be, or most usually are, first shipped for transportation; and whereof the master and three fourths of the mariners at least are of the said country or place. 8. To prevent the colouring or concealing of aliens' goods, all the foreign goods before named, which shall be henceforth imported into England in ships not belonging to England, and not navigated as aforesaid, shall be deemed aliens' goods, and shall pay all strangers' customs and port dues. 9. To prevent the like frauds in colouring the buying of foreign ships, no foreign built ship shall enjoy the privileges of one belonging to England, till first the owners make it appear that they are not aliens: and they shall swear that they gave a valuable consideration (to be then specified) for such ship, and that no foreigner has any share therein. Of all which a certificate shall be produced, and a register kept*. 10. This act shall not extend to merchandize from any place within the Straits of Gibraltar, if they be brought from the usual ports there, though not from the place of their growth, production, or manufacture, so as the ship and crew be qualified as above. The like as to all East India commodities brought from any place east of the Cape of Good Hope. Moreover English ships, navigated as above, may import from Spain, Portugal, the Canaries, Azores, and Madeira, all sorts of goods of the plantations of Spain or Portugal. 11. Bullion, prize goods, corn, and salt, and fish from Scotland, in Scotch built ships, and three fourths of the mariners the king's subjects, are excepted out of this act; and seal oil from Russia, in English ships, with three fourths English

* Ever since this act passed, there is an officer established at the custom house, called the *surveyor of the act of navigation*, who keeps a register of all British built vessels.

mariners. 12. French ships in our ports shall pay 5s. per ton, so long as English ships in French ports pay 50 sols per ton*. 13. No sugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fustic, or other dying woods of the growth or manufacture of our Asian, African, or American colonies, shall be shipped from the, said colonies to any place but to England, Ireland†, or to some other of his majesty's said plantations, there to be landed; under forfeiture as before. And to make effectual this last clause, (for the sole benefit of our own navigation and people,) the owners of the ships shall give bonds, at their setting out, for the due performance thereof."

These were called enumerated commodities; and by the acts of the 15th, 22d, and 23d, of this reign (the first for the encouragement of trade, and the others for preventing the planting of tobacco in England, and for regulating the plantation trade) the enumerated commodities in the first act were expressly prohibited to be carried to Ireland till first landed in England. The list has undergone frequent alterations, and probably many others will be hereafter found necessary.

According to circumstances of various times the operation of this act has been partially suspended, and the benefits of a free commerce with Great Britain and her colonies allowed for limited periods to other nations. Of late, too, several acts have passed, directly militating against the navigation laws, which are thus enumerated and remarked on by Lord Sheffield. The law commonly known by the name of the Dutch Property Act, and which very much extended the privileges of neutral bottoms, was passed in the 35th of George III. for the avowed purpose of securing the property of the Dutch emigrants‡.

In the next year, the 36th of George III. c. 17. an act was passed giving power to the privy council to permit all vessels, under the same pretence, to bring from any country goods of any sort, which, according to the navigation laws, could be imported only by British ships, duly navigated, or by ships duly navigated also of the countries whence the goods were brought.

According to this law all merchandize imported in foreign ships was to pay no duty, until taken out of the warehouse for consumption, though the like merchandize, if brought in Bri-

* The Dutch were exempted from this imposition of fifty sols per ton by the treaty of Ryswick, much to the damage of France, (as the French council of trade affirm in their report 1701) since that duty, which before produced from 6 to 700,000 livres, now (1701) produces but 100,000.

† Ireland is left out in all subsequent acts, and expressly excepted in that of 22, 23, Chas. II. c. 26.

‡ This act, though temporary in its object, laid the foundation of, and furnished the pretence for the subsequent acts, by which such objectionable and unnecessary powers were given to privy councils, &c.

tish vessels, was charged with duty immediately on importation. Here, then, was a manifest injury to the British merchants; yet if British ships had been permitted to enter their goods under the same power there would have been still greater mischief in the regulation: for, in such case, we should have had no British ships duly navigated; or, at least, those which were not duly navigated, and foreign vessels, would have still enjoyed superior advantages, because they could have more easily completed their crews, and at lower wages.

These acts of the 35th and 36th were further continued by the acts of the 39th and 40th of the king, until the 1st of January, 1804; and finally, an act passed in the 42d of the king, to terminate also in the year 1804, for repealing these several acts, or such of them as had not been previously repealed, and for enabling the privy council to permit goods to be imported in ships of any country, of not less than 100 tons, or in British ships navigated according to law, from any part of America or the West Indies, not under the dominion of his majesty. "For these laws, lord Sheffield proceeds, there was not even a pretence, but such as referred to temporary circumstances. During the late war, when in consequence of the disturbed state of the greater part of the two hemispheres, a very considerable portion of the produce of the world was likely to be brought into this country for safety, or for a market, it was thought advisable, for the present to suffer all goods to be imported in neutral ships; and a large importation took place of the product of the countries at war, as well as of *neutral nations*; and the goods were permitted to be warehoused, both for *home consumption*, and re-exportation. But although these laws may have arisen, in the whole, or in part, from such principles or such pretences, they are not, therefore, to be vindicated. Some of them afforded great advantages to foreign ships, in permitting articles of merchandize to be stored, which they did not allow to British vessels; and all of them, in principle, obviously amounted to a complete suspension of an essential part of one navigation code, and were admitted through laxity of principles, and want of perception of the true spirit of that system. They were favoured indeed, by the idea, that merchandize could not be brought into this country without leaving something behind on re-exportation. But here ends the apology which is to be offered for them; and why any of them should have been allowed to continue in force after the peace, and till 1804, it will not be easy to assign a reason. These acts, if they augmented the quantity of merchandize brought to this country, certainly increased, in a very unnecessary degree, the quantity of foreign tonnage employed in our carrying trade; and all the advantages thus held out to foreign shipping were

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peculiarly

peculiarly calculated to establish that trade in the hands of the Americans, on the conclusion of the war, when such a number of transports, and so many ships, seamen, and artificers were to be discharged from the public service, as would be fully equal to the carrying on of the whole of our commerce. Under such circumstances, therefore, what was to be the probable result? Those ships were to be laid up, by discouragement, in our ports to rot, and those seamen, together with the numerous classes of persons occupied in ship building, were to be dispersed abroad in search of employment, and many to be seduced into the service of other nations, or to pass over to America, and, consequently they and their progeny to be lost to their native country for ever."

Dr. Adam Smith states the following objections against the navigation act in general. "The act of navigation is not favourable to foreign commerce, or to the growth of that opulence which can arise from it. The interest of a nation in its commercial relations to foreign nations is, like that of a merchant with regard to the different people with whom he deals, to buy as cheap and sell as dear as possible. But it will be most likely to buy cheap, when by the most perfect freedom of trade it encourages all nations to bring to it the goods which it has occasion to purchase; and, for the same reason, it will be most likely to sell dear, when its markets are thus filled with the greatest numbers of buyers. The act of navigation, it is true, lays no burden upon foreign ships that come to export the produce of British industry. Even the ancient aliens' duty, which used to be paid upon all goods exported as well as imported, has, by several subsequent acts, been taken off from the greater part of the articles of exportation. But if foreigners, either by prohibitions or high duties, are hindered from coming to sell, they cannot always afford to come to buy; because coming without a cargo, they must lose the freight from their own country to Great Britain. By diminishing the number of sellers, therefore, we necessarily diminish that of buyers, and are thus likely not only to buy foreign goods dearer, but to sell our own cheaper, than if there was a more perfect freedom of trade. As defence, however, is of much more importance than opulence, the act of navigation is perhaps the wisest of all the commercial regulations of England. When by the act of navigation, he further observes, England assumed to herself the monopoly of the colony trade, the foreign capitals which had before been employed in it were necessarily withdrawn from it. The English capital, which had before carried on but part of it, was now to carry on the whole. The capital which had before supplied the colonies with but a part of the goods which they wanted

ed from Europe, was now all that was employed to supply them with the whole. But it could not supply them with the whole, and the goods with which it did supply them were necessarily sold very dear. The capital which had before bought but a part of the surplus produce of the colonies, was now all that was employed to buy the whole. But it could not buy the whole at any thing near the old price, and, therefore whatever it did buy it necessarily bought very cheap. But in an employment of capital in which the merchant sold very dear and bought very cheap, the profit must have been very great, and much above the ordinary level of profit in other branches of trade. This superiority of profit in the colony trade could not fail to draw from other branches of trade a part of the capital which had before been employed in them. But this revulsion of capital, as it must have gradually increased the competition of capitals in the colony trade, so it must have gradually diminished that competition in all those other branches of trade; as it must have gradually lowered the profits of the one, so it must have gradually raised those of the other, till the profits of all came to a new level, different from and somewhat higher than that at which they had been before. This double effect, of drawing capital from all other trades, and of raising the rate of profit somewhat higher than it otherwise would have been in all trades, was not only produced by this monopoly upon its first establishment, but has continued to be produced by it ever since.

First, this monopoly has been continually drawing capital from all other trades to be employed in that of the colonies. Though the wealth of Great Britain has increased very much since the establishment of the act of navigation, it certainly has not increased in the same proportion as that of the colonies. But the foreign trade of every country naturally increases in proportion to its wealth; its surplus produce in proportion to its whole produce; and Great Britain having ingrossed to herself almost the whole of what may be called the foreign trade of the colonies, and her capital not having increased in the same proportion as the extent of that trade, she could not carry it on without continually withdrawing from other branches of trade some part of the capital which had before been employed in them, as well as withholding from them a great deal more which would otherwise have gone to them. Since the establishment of the act of navigation, accordingly, the colony trade has been continually increasing, while many other branches of foreign trade, particularly of that to other parts of Europe, have been continually decaying. Our manufactures for foreign sale, instead of being suited as before the act of navigation, to the neighbouring market of Europe, or

to the more distant one of the countries which lie round the Mediterranean sea, have, the greater part of them, been accommodated to the still more distant one of the colonies to the market in which they have the monopoly, rather than to that in which they have many competitors. The causes of decay in other branches of foreign trade, which, by sir Mathew Decker and other writers, have been sought for in the excess and improper mode of taxation, in the high price of labour, in the increase of luxury, &c. may all be found in the over-growth of the colony trade. The mercantile capital of Great Britain, though very great, yet not being infinite; and though greatly increased since the act of navigation, yet not being increased in the same proportion as the colony trade, that trade could not possibly be carried on without withdrawing some part of that capital from other branches of trade, nor consequently without some decay of those other branches. England, it must be observed, was a great trading country, her mercantile capital was very great, and likely to become still greater and greater every day; not only before the act of navigation had established the monopoly of the colony trade, but before that trade was very considerable.

Secondly, this monopoly has necessarily contributed to keep up the rate of profit in all the different branches of British trade higher than it naturally would have been, had all nations been allowed a free trade to the British colonies. The monopoly of the colony trade, as it necessarily drew towards that trade a greater proportion of the capital of Great Britain than what would have gone to it of its own accord; so by the expulsion of all foreign capitals it necessarily reduced the whole quantity of capital employed in that trade below what it naturally would have been in case of a free trade. But, by lessening the competition of capitals in that branch of trade, it necessarily raised the rate of profit in that branch. By lessening too the competition of British capitals in all other branches of trade, it necessarily raised the rate of British profit in all those other branches.

Whatever raises in any country the ordinary rate of profit higher than it otherwise would be, necessarily subjects that country both to an absolute and to a relative disadvantage in every branch of trade of which she has not the monopoly.

Our merchants frequently complain of the high wages of British labour as the cause of their manufactures being under-sold in foreign markets; but they are silent about the high profits of stock. They complain of the extravagant gain of other people, but they say nothing of their own. The high profits of British stock, however, may contribute towards raising the price

price of British manufactures in many cases as much, and in some perhaps more, than the high wages of British labour.

It is in this manner that the capital of Great Britain, one may justly say, has partly been drawn and partly been driven from the greater part of the different branches of trade of which she has not the monopoly; from the trade of Europe in particular, and from that of the countries which lie round the Mediterranean sea.

It has partly been drawn from those branches of trade, by the attraction of superior profit in the colony trade in consequence of the continual increase of that trade, and of the continual insufficiency of the capital which had carried it on one year to carry it on the next.

It has partly been driven from them, by the advantage which the high rate of profit, established in Great Britain, gives to other countries, in all the different branches of trade of which Great Britain has not the monopoly.

In these statements, Adam Smith is accused of deserting fact and experience, for the sake of speculation and theory; his arguments are combated with great force, and the mischief of all the indulgences and concessions by which the British government has weakened the operation of the navigation law is clearly pointed out by many authors, and particularly by lord Sheffield, whose publication called *Strictures on the necessity of inviolably preserving the navigation and colonial System of Great Britain*, merits the most attentive consideration. Following the same line of argument with the noble author, and adopting many of his calculations and deductions, Mr. Oddy forms the following conclusion. The necessity and policy of suspending the British navigation act can be justified in time of war only; then it is a source of profit to foreign nations at the expence of Great Britain; but if we are to judge of the prosperity of the country from past experience, that it can support great burthens, it is the shipping which is the fundamental cause of our bearing those burthens; and, therefore, it appears policy to exempt British shipping from taxation as a source of revenue. We should consider, that though the goods can bear a tax, the carrier may not be able to do so; and when the question is about the nation being its own carrier, matters should be managed not only with great delicacy, but with great liberality; for any tax upon our shipping acts as a premium to foreign shipping, consequently prejudicial to our own. It has always been a maxim of nations, and a just one too, that individual prosperity should give way to the welfare of a state; but where both can be materially benefited, then policy commands that we should secure those advantages. The
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navigation act of this country is the foundation on which the colossal monument of our naval victories, glories, and national power, is built; and although our superiority has been so much exclaimed against by all, a French author, the most conspicuous in the ranks when issuing his spleenetic envy against Britain exercising the sovereignty of the seas, has candidly asked, "What nation having the power would not do the same?" When then our existence, as a great and powerful nation, depends upon our navy, and when our shipping is a nursery for that navy, every protection and facility should be given to promote it; every restraint or burthen to discourage it should be done away. It is a floating, insecure property of individuals, always precarious and liable to loss; it therefore requires the fostering aid of government, when we have near us, at home, competitors like the northern nations; and across the Atlantic the Americans, whose enterprising spirit and vigilance is making head in a more formidable manner than we are aware.

MERCHANT SHIPS. The extensive commerce carried on by means of vessels of this description has given rise to a variety of regulations which will be noticed in the order adopted by Mr. Abbott, in his treatise on the law of Merchant ships and seamen.

PROPERTY.—One or more persons may acquire the *property of a ship* by building it at their expence, or by purchasing it of another, who has authority to dispose of it. Upon the death of the owner, his interest devolves upon his personal representatives. In the case of purchase however it is necessary that the person who takes upon him to sell, should have power to do so; for although a sale of other goods by the person who is in possession of them does in many cases vest the property in the buyer, even when the seller himself has neither property in them, nor authority to dispose of them, the same cannot take place with respect to ships, as there is no open market for the sale of them. Indeed this species of property appears from very early times to have been evidenced by written documents, and at present always is so, which other moveable goods rarely are; and therefore the buyer has in this instance the means of ascertaining the title of any person who offers to sell, and can seldom be deceived except by his own fault. The master of a ship possesses every power necessary for the employment and navigation of the ship; but he has not, unless in a case of extreme necessity, authority to sell the ship; he may however, in case of necessity, borrow money upon the credit of the ship or its furniture with the assent of the crew. He may also, in cases of extreme necessity, sell the ship, but no person can safely purchase one of the master in any other case; and although he be himself

self part owner of the ship, yet will not his sale be good for more than his own part; for the interest of the part owners is so far distinct, that one of them cannot dispose of the share of another; whereas in articles of ordinary sale, one partner may in general transfer the whole property, if the transaction be without fraud.

The effect of this interdiction of sale has been frequently evaded in foreign countries, by procuring a sentence of condemnation and sale of a ship, as unfit for service, from some court or judge having jurisdiction in maritime affairs. No such jurisdiction is known to the law of England. These condemnations, as they are called, sometimes made abroad, upon the survey and report of captains or carpenters, have no binding force in this country, but the fact, upon which they profess to be founded, may be litigated by the parties interested in disputing it.

The property in a ship being always evidenced by written documents; these documents not only furnish the owner with proof of his property, but also enable him to dispose of it, when the ship is at sea, or in a foreign port. When a ship is here in the country of its owner, and a delivery of actual possession is necessary to give a perfect title to the buyer, in case of a sale of the whole ship; for although as between buyer and seller the sale may be completed by payment of the price with delivery of possession, yet if the buyer suffer the seller to remain in possession, and act as owner, and the seller in the mean time become bankrupt, the property will be considered as remaining in him to be disposed of for the benefit of his creditors; and sometimes also, if an execution issue upon a judgment against the seller, the sale may be deemed fraudulent and void as against the party, who has obtained the judgment. But in case of a sale, or an agreement for sale, of a part only, it has been thought sufficient, if the vendor, having delivered the muniments of his title, ceased from the time to act as a part owner, actual delivery of a part being said to be impossible.

Another mode of acquiring property in a ship is by capture from an enemy in time of war, legalized and sanctioned by a sentence of condemnation in a court of the capturing power, constituted according to the law of nations. In this case however, if the capture is made by a ship belonging to his majesty, the prize is formally condemned to the king, and the value distributed among the captors; and if the capture is made by a private ship, in which case the sentence is in form a condemnation to the captors, a sale will always be the most convenient mode of ascertaining the value, both for the purpose of distribution among the captors, and of payment of the duties to the king;

king; and the acts of parliament which give to prizes the privileges of British ships, presume a sale and provide regulations accordingly. Capture by pirates who are merely robbers at sea, does not divest the property of the owner; and in a very early period of our history a law was made for the restitution of property so taken, if found within the realm, belonging as well to strangers as to Englishmen. But capture by an enemy, in the exercise of war between two nations, does, according to the laws of nations, wholly divest the property of the owner, and transfer it to the captor or the sovereign of his state at some period.

REGISTER. All commercial nations have, for the advancement of their individual prosperity, conferred various privileges of trade upon the ships belonging to their own countrymen; and the legislature of this nation has for the same purpose, at different periods, enacted laws suitable to the circumstances of the times, requiring, for the exercise of some particular branches of commerce, ships not only of the property of its own subjects, but also of the built of its own dominions. It has however at all times been the policy of the legislature to confine the privileges of our trade, as far as was consistent with the extent of it, to ships built within the king's dominions; but it was reserved for the present reign to behold the ship building of the country advanced to such a state as to warrant the confinement of these privileges exclusively to ships of that description, or taken as prize in war. And accordingly this measure was carried into execution by a statute, made in the 26th year of his present majesty's reign; reserving however to such foreign built ships as were then the property of his subjects, the privileges to which they were then entitled by the existing laws. For the more effectual execution of this important measure of public policy, various new regulations were introduced, to ascertain the built and property of ships, which have been since improved by subsequent statutes, as experience shewed that some particulars, notwithstanding the great attention paid to the original statute, and the great talents employed in framing it, had not been sufficiently provided for by it. These provisions are not less happily calculated to prevent the commission of private fraud upon individuals, than to advance the public policy of the state, by the notoriety of property obtained through the medium of a *public register*, a measure adopted with numerous improvements from the wisdom of former times. The subject of these provisions are all merchant ships employed upon the sea, whether in the coasting trade or distant voyages, having a deck, or being of the burthen of *fifteen* tons and upwards; and either built in Great Britain, or Ireland, Jersey, Guernsey, the Isle

Isle of Man, or the colonies, plantations, islands, and territories under the dominion of his majesty, in Asia, Africa, or America; or taken in lawful war and condemned as prize; with the exception of "vessels not exceeding thirty tons, and not having
 " a whole or fixed deck, and being employed wholly in the
 " fishery on the banks or shores of Newfoundland, and of the
 " parts adjacent, or on the banks or shores of the provinces of
 " Quebec, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick, adjacent to the
 " gulf of Saint Lawrence, and to the north of Cape Canso, or
 " of the islands within the same, or in trading coastwise within
 " the said limits; which latter vessels are not liable to be
 " registered, nor to any hindrance or molestation for not being
 " registered."

Such ships, however, must belong to some of his majesty's subjects not residing in any country which is not under the dominion of his majesty, unless he be a member of some British factory, or agent for, or co-partner in, a house or co-partnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland.

No ship shall be deemed British built, or enjoy the privilege belonging to that character, *if rebuilt, or repaired, in a foreign port at an expence exceeding fifteen shillings per ton*, unless such repairs shall be necessary by reason of extraordinary damage sustained during her absence from the king's dominions, and to enable her to perform her voyage, and return to the king's dominions in safety; and unless, before the repairs are made, the master shall report upon oath, or affirmation if a quaker, her condition to the British Consul, or chief British officer, if there be any on the spot, and cause her to be surveyed by two persons to be approved of by him, and deliver to him in writing the particulars of the damage sustained; and verify upon oath, or affirmation, the particulars and amount of the repairs, and the necessity of them; which such consul or officer is required to certify under his hand and seal. And if a ship is repaired in a foreign port, the master shall, if required, make proof on oath, or by affirmation, of the nature and amount of the expence of the repairs, before the principal officer of the customs, at the port within his majesty's dominions at which he shall first arrive; and if the expence shall exceed fifteen shillings per ton, and the master shall not deliver the certificate before mentioned, the ship shall be deemed foreign built.

PLACE. The place of registry is in general the port from and to which the ship shall usually trade, or, being a new ship, shall intend to trade; and at or near which the husband, or acting owner or owners reside, but four of the commissioners of the customs in England, or three in Scotland, may, if they see fit,

authorize

authorize the register to be made in a different port; and prize ships, condemned in Guernsey, Jersey, or the Isle of Man, must, in order to secure the duties, be registered either at Southampton, Weymouth, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, Liverpool, or Whitehaven.

CERTIFICATE. In order to obtain a certificate of registry in the case of a new ship, the person applying must produce a full and true account under the hand of the builder, of the denomination of the ship, time and place of building, tonnage, and name of the first purchaser, and must make oath that the ship is the same as thus described by the builder. In the case of a prize ship, the owner must produce a certificate of the condemnation, under the hand and seal of the judge of the court, and an account in writing of all the particulars, contained in the form of the certificate of registry, made and subscribed by one or more skilful persons, to be appointed by the court to survey the ship; and must also make oath of the identity of the ship: and if the prize has been condemned in the foreign colonies, oath must be made of the sum for which the ship was sold, and an account of that sum must be subjoined to the certificate, in order that the duties may be paid upon the ship's arrival in Great Britain; where indeed they must be paid, whether the ship has been sold or not, before the ship can be intitled to the privileges. And further, if the prize was a ship of war, the pre-emption of the ship, furniture, and stores, must be offered to the principal officers and commissioners of the navy; and the pre-emption of the guns, arms, and ordnance stores, must be offered to the master-general and principal officers of the ordnance; and their certificate of the tender of them, and of their refusal to purchase, produced to the officers appointed to make registry.

OATH. Before the register is made, an oath must be taken and subscribed in the form set forth in the statutes. This oath, in the case of private persons, is to be made by the owner, if only one; if two owners, and both resident within twenty miles of the place of registry, by both; if both or either be resident at a greater distance, by one only: if more than two owners, by the greater part, not exceeding three, if resident within twenty miles; or by one, if all are resident at a greater distance; and if three or more, and three do not attend, oath must further be made that the absent are not resident within twenty miles, and have not wilfully absented themselves to avoid taking the oath, or are prevented by illness from attending. In case of the East India Company or other corporation, the oath is to be made by the secretary or other officer authorized by the corporation. But as ships are sometimes built in Newfoundland, and in those
parts

parts of the provinces of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, adjacent to the Gulph of Saint Lawrence, and to the North of Cape Canso, on account of owners residing in his majesty's European dominions, the oath may, in the absence of all the owners, be taken there by the husband or principal agent of the ship, and a certificate of register granted to be in force until the ship's arrival at some port in the king's European dominions, where it may be registered on the oath of the owners; and then the certificate becomes void, and the ship is to be registered anew upon the oath of the owners, as in the case of ships built at home. The oath to be thus made contains the name and description of the vessel, the name of the master, and of every part owner, with other particulars tending to prove them to be subjects of his Majesty by birth, denization, or naturalization; and concludes with a positive averment, that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any share or interest in the ship.

VIEW. And in order to obtain a true and accurate description of the ship, one or more persons appointed by the commissioners of the customs, or in the islands, &c. by the commanders in chief, are to go on board, and examine, and admeasure the ship: and if it is necessary to take the admeasurement, while the ship is afloat, are to do so in the particular mode prescribed by the statutes. The register to be made, when all these previous steps have been taken, specifies the name, occupation, and residence of every owner; the name of the ship; the place to which she belongs; the name of the master; the time and place of the built, or capture, and date of condemnation; the name of the surveying officer, the number of decks and masts; the length, breadth, height between decks, or depth of the hold, tonnage; particular kind and manner of building; gallery, and kind of head, if there be any. And of this register a certificate is to be granted by the collector or comptroller of the customs in Great Britain or the Isle of Man, or the governor or lieutenant governor, or commander in chief, and principal officer of the revenues of the customs in Jersey, or Guernsey, or the foreign territories.

BOND. But before the certificate of registry is delivered out, a bond must be executed by the master of the ship, and such of the owners as personally attend, before the person authorized to grant the certificate, or before any other person, and at any other place, by permission of the commissioners of the customs, or of the commander in chief of the European islands or foreign territories before mentioned; in a penalty, varying in proportion to the burden of the ship, but never exceeding 1000*l.* as a security that the certificate shall not be lent, sold, or disposed of,

but solely used for the service of the ship for which it is granted; and in case of the loss, capture, or destruction of the ship, or of the transfer of the whole or any share of it to a foreigner, be delivered up to the persons authorized by the statute to receive it.

CHANGE OF PROPRIETORS. Whenever the master of the ship is changed, the certificate must be delivered to the person authorized to make registry at the port where the change shall take place, who is to indorse upon it a memorandum of the change, and give notice thereof to the officer of the port of register, who is to make a memorandum of it in the book of registers, and give notice thereof to the commissioners of customs: and the new master must execute a fresh bond similar to the original security.

NAME OF SHIP. To prevent the frauds formerly committed by changing the names of ships; the name, by which a ship has been registered, must never be changed, and must be painted, with the name of the port to which she belongs, in a conspicuous manner on the stern of the ship.

SHAPE. If any registered ship is altered afterwards in form or burden, by being lengthened or built upon, or changed from a sloop to a brigantine, or from one denomination of vessel to another, by the mode of rigging, or fitting, such ship must be registered anew, as soon as she returns to the port to which she belongs, or to any other, in which she may be registered.

NUMBER. The certificates thus granted, are to be numbered progressively by the persons granting them, beginning a numeration every year; they are also to copy them into a book to be kept for that purpose, and transmit exact copies to the commissioners of customs at London, or Edinburgh, according to the department to which they belong; and copies of those transmitted to Edinburgh are afterwards to be transmitted to the commissioners of the customs in England.

PRODUCTION OF CERTIFICATE. The master of every registered ship must, on demand, produce the certificate of registry to the principal officer of every port in his Majesty's dominions, or to the British consul, or chief British officer, in any foreign port, to which he shall arrive, under the penalty of 100 l.

Loss. So valuable an instrument ought to be kept with the greatest care; but as it may nevertheless happen to be lost or mislaid, a new register and certificate may be granted upon taking the oath before mentioned, and entering into a bond for delivering up the old certificate, if found, and making no improper use of it. If the loss be discovered, when a ship belong-

ing to this country is in the plantations abroad, the certificate granted there will be in force only until her return home.

DETENTION. And as it has sometimes happened that the master of the ship, who is necessarily intrusted with the possession of the certificate, while the ship is at sea, has obstinately refused to deliver it, when the owners have had occasion for it; the legislature has twice endeavoured to provide a remedy for this evil. First, by a statute made in the 22d year of his present Majesty's reign, by which it is enacted, "That on complaint made on oath, by the owner of any vessel, whose certificate shall be so detained and refused to be delivered up, of such detainer and refusal, to any justice of the peace residing near the place, it shall be lawful for such justice, by warrant under his hand and seal, to cause such master to be brought before him, to be examined; and if it shall appear that the same is not lost or mislaid, but is wilfully and maliciously detained, the master shall forfeit 100*l.* and on failure of payment in two days, be committed to the common gaol, not less than six months nor more than twelve. And the justice may issue a warrant to search for such certificate, and if found, to restore it to the owner, and if not found, the justice shall certify the detainer, refusal, and conviction, to the persons who granted the last certificate of registry, who shall, on the terms and conditions of the acts being complied with, make registry of such vessel *de novo*, and grant a certificate conformably to the directions of the acts, notifying on the back the ground upon which the vessel was so registered *de novo*."

By a subsequent statute, it is enacted, "That in case the master of any ship who shall have received her certificate of registry (whether he shall be a part owner or not) shall wilfully detain and refuse to deliver it up to the proper officers empowered to make registry, and grant certificates on requisition from the owners, they may make complaint on oath against such master to any justice of the peace residing near the place, or to any member of the supreme court of justice, or any justice of the peace in the colonies; and such justice or other magistrate shall, by warrant under his hand and seal, cause such master to be brought before him, to be examined; and if it shall appear that the said certificate is not lost or mislaid, but is wilfully detained; the master shall forfeit 100 *l.* and on failure of payment be committed to gaol not less than six months nor more than twelve." This statute does not authorize the magistrate to grant a search warrant, but it requires the detainer to be certified, and a new certificate of registry granted, in the same words as the preceding statute.

SALE OF SHIPS. These several regulations are applicable to British ships, while they remain the property of the original owners.

owners. Other provisions are made by the statutes to regulate the transfer of the property wholly, or in part, from one person to another; and no transfer can be valid without a compliance with them. In the first place, the first of the statutes now under consideration enacts, that when the property of any vessel shall be transferred from one to another of his Majesty's subjects, the certificate of the registry shall be truly and accurately recited, in words at length, in the bill or other instrument of sale, which shall otherwise be void. A subsequent statute reciting, that upon this clause doubts had arisen, whether *every* transfer of property was required to be made by an instrument in writing; and, whether contracts or agreements for the transfer might not be made *without* such an instrument, enacts, that no transfer, contract, or agreement for transfer, of property, in any vessel, made after the 1st January 1795, shall be valid or effectual, unless made by bill of sale, or instrument in writing, containing such recital as prescribed by that clause.

But this is not the only requisite to a transfer of property. Further requisites are introduced by the statutes.

First, When an alteration of property takes place *in the port* to which the ship belongs. In this event, the first of the recent statutes, referring to the statute 7 and 8 William, c. 22, which requires, "That in case there be any alteration of property in the same port, by the sale of one or more shares in any ship, after registering thereof, such sale shall always be acknowledged by *indorsement* on the certificate of the register before two witnesses, in order to prove that the entire property in such ship remains to some of the subjects of England, if any dispute arises concerning the same;" further directs, "That in every such case, besides the indorsement required by the said act, there shall be indorsed, before two witnesses, the town, place, or parish, where every person to whom the property in any ship or vessel, or any part thereof, shall be so transferred, shall reside; or if such persons usually reside in any country, not under the dominion of his Majesty, but in some British factory, the name of such factory; or if such persons reside in any foreign town or city, and are not members of some British factory, the name of such foreign town or city, and also the names of the house or copartnership in Great Britain or Ireland, for or with whom such persons are agents or partners; and the persons to whom the property of such vessel shall be so transferred, or their agent, shall also deliver a copy of such indorsement to the persons authorized to make registry and grant certificates, who are to cause an entry thereof to be indorsed on the oath or affidavit upon which the original certificate was obtained; and also make a memorandum of the same in a book of registers,

sters, and forthwith give notice thereof to the commissioners of the customs in England or Scotland, under whom they respectively act."

Secondly, When an alteration takes place during the absence of the ship from the port to which she belongs. In this case, the 34 Geo. III. c. 68. provides, "That if any ship or vessel be at sea, or absent from the port to which she belongs at the time when an alteration in the property is made, so that an indorsement or certificate cannot be immediately made, the sale, or contract for sale, shall notwithstanding be made by bill of sale, or other instrument in writing, as before directed, and a copy of the instrument delivered, and an entry indorsed on the oath or affidavit, and a memorandum made in the book of registers, and notice given to the commissioners of the customs, as before directed; and within ten days after the vessel shall return to the port to which she belongs, an indorsement shall be made and signed by the owners, and a copy delivered in manner before mentioned, otherwise such bill of sale, or contract, shall be void; and entry shall be indorsed, and a memorandum made, in manner before directed." And as in case of the owner's residence out of the king's dominions, it would be impossible to comply with several of the requisites before mentioned, it is provided, "That in all cases, where the owner of any ship shall reside in any country not under the dominion of his Majesty, as member of some British factory, or agent or partner in any house, carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, at the time when he shall transfer such property in any ship, so that an indorsement cannot be made immediately, nor a copy of the bill of sale, or instrument, be delivered, nor an entry indorsed on the oath or affidavit, nor a memorandum made in the book of registers, nor notice given to the commissioners of the customs as before mentioned, the same may be done at any time within six months after such transfer, and within ten days after such owner, or some persons legally authorized for that purpose, shall arrive in this kingdom, if the ship is then in any port of this kingdom, and if not, then within ten days after its arrival, an indorsement shall be made by the owner, or some person legally authorized, and a copy delivered as before mentioned, otherwise the bill of sale, or contract, shall be void; and entry thereof shall be indorsed, and a memorandum made, as before directed."

In all cases, however, when a ship is required to be registered anew, upon any transfer of the property wholly or in part, the registering officers are authorized and directed to require the bill or other instrument to be produced; and, if it is not produced, they are not to register the ship anew, but four of the commissioners of customs in England, or three in Scotland, or the

commander in chief in Guernsey, Jersey, and the foreign territories, may, if application is made to them, upon due consideration of the particular circumstances of the case, give direction for registering the ship anew, and granting a certificate, notwithstanding the bill or other instrument of sale shall not have been produced, if all other regulations are complied with.

Under this head of transfer of property, it seems fit to notice the provisions made by the legislature to prevent such transfer from being made to a foreigner. A transfer of any share to a foreigner would deprive the ship of its privileges, and, consequently, greatly prejudice the other owners; and to prevent this evil, it was enacted by 13 Geo. III., "That no foreigner, or other person, not being a natural born subject of his Majesty, shall be entitled to, or shall purchase, or contract for, any part or share of any British vessel, belonging only to natural born subjects, without the consent in writing of the owners of three-fourths in value, at least, of such vessel, indorsed on the certificate of the register before two witnesses; and all agreements, contracts, purchases, and sales of any share of any British ship, made or concluded by any such foreigner, without such consent, and not indorsed as aforesaid, shall be absolutely null and void." The 34 Geo. III. c. 68. also declares, That whereas British ships, the property of which is in whole or in part transferred to persons not being subjects of his Majesty, are not entitled to the privileges of British ships, and to prevent frauds in the employment of such ships as British; they are now by law required, in certain cases, to be registered *de novo*; for which purpose, it is necessary that such ships should proceed, with all due diligence, to the port to which they belong, or to any other port in which they may be legally registered, in order to be registered *de novo*. It is enacted, That from the 1st of March 1795, as often as any such transfer of property in any ship shall be made, while upon the sea, in case the master is privy to such transfer, or in case he is not so privy, as soon as he shall be acquainted therewith, such vessel shall proceed directly to the port for which the cargo then on board is destined, and shall sail from thence to the port of his Majesty's dominions to which she belongs, or to any other such port in which she may be legally registered by virtue of the said act; and such ship may take on board in the port for which her original cargo was destined, or in any other port being in the course of her voyage to the port in which she may be so registered *de novo*, such cargo, and no other, as shall be destined, and may legally be carried to such port of his Majesty's dominions, where she may be so registered *de novo*. And, if such transfer of property shall be made, while the vessel is in any foreign port, and the master is privy, or if not, as soon as he shall become acquainted therewith, such vessel,

vessel, after having delivered the cargo then on board at the port for which it is destined, shall sail to the port of his Majesty's dominions to which she belongs, or any other port, in which she may be legally registered, and may take on board a proper cargo to be discharged at the port of his Majesty's dominions, in which she may be so registered *de novo*. And, if such transfer of property is made while the ship is on a fishing voyage, and the master is privy to such transfer, or, if not, as soon as he shall become acquainted, the vessel, after having finished her fishing voyage, without touching at any foreign port, except for repairs or refreshments, or delivery of the cargo, shall sail to the port of his Majesty's dominions to which she belongs, or where she may be legally registered, and take on board such cargo as may be legally carried, and be registered *de novo*; but, on failure, the ship or vessel shall, to all intents and purposes, be considered foreign, and not again registered, and entitled to British privileges, unless upon special representation to four or more commissioners of the customs in England, or three in Scotland, or proper persons abroad, who may order the ship to be registered, and again entitled to the privileges of a British ship, and a certificate shall be granted accordingly. But such ships must comply with all the regulations required by law concerning the first registry; and no ship, of which the property is so transferred, shall be registered *de novo*, unless she return to a proper British port within twelve months after the transfer; unless on a voyage to the east, or the Cape of Good Hope, or to the west of Cape Horn, and then within two years, except cases of special representation.

SHARES. The several part-owners of a ship are tenants in common with each other of their respective shares: each has a distinct, although undivided, interest in the whole; and, upon the death of any one, his share goes to his own personal representatives, and does not accrue to the others by survivorship. A personal chattel, vested in several distinct proprietors, cannot possibly be enjoyed advantageously by all, without a common consent and agreement among them: to regulate their enjoyment, in case of disagreement, is one of the hardest tasks of legislation: and it is not without wisdom, that the law of England, in general, declines to interfere in their disputes, leaving it to themselves, either to enjoy their common property by agreement, or to suffer it to remain unenjoyed, or perish by their dissension, as the best method of forcing them to a common consent for their common benefit. The law of this country, while it authorizes the majority in value to employ the ship "upon any probable design," takes care to secure the interest of the dissentient minority from being lost in the employment, of which they disapprove. And for this purpose, it

has been the practice of the Court of Admiralty, from very remote times, to take a stipulation from those, who desire to send the ship on a voyage, in a sum equal to the value of the shares of those who disapprove of the adventure, either to bring back and restore to them the ship, within a limited time, or to pay them the value of their shares. When this is done, the dissentient part-owners bear no portion of the expenses of the outfit, and are not intitled to a share in the profits of the undertaking; but the ship sails wholly at the charge and risk, and for the profit of the others. This security may be taken upon a warrant obtained by the minority to arrest the ship; and it is incumbent on the minority to have recourse to such proceedings, as the best means of protecting their interest; or, if they forbear to do so, at all events they should expressly notify their dissent to the others, and, if possible, to the merchants also, who freight the ship. With regard to the *repairs* of a ship, and other necessities for the employment of it, one part-owner may, in general, by ordering these things on credit, render his companions liable to be sued for the price of them. Yet, if the person who gives the credit on such an occasion does not at the time know that there are other part-owners, he may sue him alone, from whom he receives the orders. But one part-owner cannot, by ordering an insurance of the ship, without authority from another, charge the other with any part of the premium, unless the other afterward assent to the insurance. The interest of part-owners in a ship, and in the profits and loss of an adventure undertaken by their mutual consent, is not affected by the bankruptcy of one of them taking place after the commencement of the voyage, although he has not paid his full share of the outfit. In such a case, if the other part-owners have, in that character, paid the expense of the outfit, or made themselves responsible for it, they will have a right to deduct his share from the portion of his profits to be paid to his assignees.

MASTER. The master is the person entrusted with the care and management of the ship. His power and authority are so great, and the trust reposed in him is of so important a nature, that the greatest care and circumspection ought to be used by the owners in the choice and appointment. It appears by the language of the antient sea-laws and ordinances, that the master was formerly in almost every instance a part owner of the ship, and, consequently interested, in a two-fold character, in the faithful discharge of his duty. At present, it frequently happens that he has no property in the ship. The law of some countries requires a previous examination of the person to be appointed to this important office, in order to ascertain his nautical experience and skill: in other countries he is liable to be punished

as a criminal, if, having undertaken the charge, he is found incompetent to the performance of it. In this country the owners are, except in one case, which relates to the slave trade, left to their own discretion, as to the skill and honesty of the master; and, although he is bound to make good any damage that may happen to the ship or cargo, by his negligence or unskilfulness, if he is of ability to do so, yet he cannot be punished as a criminal for mere incompetence. The regulation in the navigation act requiring the master and a certain portion of the crew to be British subjects, has already been noticed; by some late statutes, these restrictions have been, in some degree, varied, and the 34 Geo. III. c. 68. enacts, that if any goods shall be imported or brought, exported or carried coastwise, contrary to any of the provisions of this act, the goods, vessel, guns, and furniture shall be forfeited: and if any vessel shall sail in ballast, or sail to be employed in fishing on the coast, in the manner before-mentioned, or being required to be manned and navigated with a master, and a certain proportion of British mariners, as before directed, shall not be manned and navigated according to the provisions of this act, the vessel, with her guns and furniture, and all the goods on board, shall be forfeited. And all goods and vessels so forfeited may be seized by the commander of any ship of war, or any commissioned, warrant, or petty officer, specially appointed by him, or any officer of the customs: the forfeiture to be recovered and applied in the same manner as any forfeiture incurred by any law respecting the revenue of the customs. Provision is, however, made for cases where foreign sailors are in greater proportion than is allowed, owing to death, desertion, and other causes.

CONTRACTS. A trading ship is employed by virtue of two distinct species of contract. First, the contract by which an entire ship, or, at least, the principal part, is let for a determinate voyage to one or more places: this is usually done by a written instrument, signed and sealed, and called a *Charter-party*. Secondly, the contract by which the master or owners of a ship destined on a particular voyage, engage separately with a number of persons unconnected with each other, to convey their respective goods to the place of the ship's destination. A ship employed in this manner is usually called a *general ship*. The owners rarely navigate a trading ship by themselves; the conduct and management of it are almost always intrusted to the master, whether he has, or has not, a partial property in it. In the latter case, he is the confidential servant, or agent, of the owners at large; in the former, of his co-partners. In either case, by the law of England, and, in conformity to the rules and maxims of that law in analogous cases, the owners
are

are bound to the performance of every lawful contract made by him relative to the usual employment of the ship. They are bound to this performance, by reason of their employment of the ship, and of the profit derived by them from that employment. One part-owner, who dissents from a particular voyage in the manner before-mentioned, is not bound, because he does not employ the ship on that voyage, nor derive any profit from it. The course of the usual employment of the ship is evidence of authority given by the owners to the master, to make for them and on their behalf a contract relating to such employment; and, consequently, a contract so made by him is esteemed in law to have been made by them. It is true, that the master also is answerable for his own contract; for, in favour of commerce, the law will not compel the merchant to seek after the owners and sue them, although it gives him the power to do so; but leaves him a two-fold remedy against the one or the other. The great responsibility, which the laws of commercial nations cast upon the owners for the acts of the master, in this and other cases, has appeared to many persons, at first view, to be a great hardship; but, laying aside all consideration of the opportunities of fraud and collusion, which would otherwise be afforded, it should always be remembered, that the master is elected and appointed by the owners; and by their appointment of him to a place of trust and confidence, they hold him forth to the public as a person worthy of trust and confidence; and if the merchants, whom he deceives, could not have redress against those who appointed him; they would often have just reason to complain, that they had sustained an irreparable injury through the negligence or mistake of the owners; as the master is seldom of ability to make good the loss of any considerable amount.

REPAIRS AND SUPPLIES. The obligation, to which the master of a ship may subject the owners, to pay the charge of repairing their ship, and the price of stores and provisions supplied for the use of it, or to repay money advanced for those purposes, is sometimes direct, furnishing an action against themselves personally; sometimes indirect, to be prosecuted by a suit against the ship. It should be premised, however, that the master is always personally bound by a contract of this kind made by himself, unless he takes care by express terms to confine the credit to his owners only. But such a contract made by the owners themselves, or under circumstances which shew that credit was given to them alone, gives the creditor no right of action against the master. In order, however, to constitute a demand against the owners, it is necessary that the supplies furnished by the master's order should be reasonably fit and proper for the occasion,

occasion, or that money advanced to him for the purchase of them should at the time appear to be wanting for that purpose. The contrary in either case would furnish a strong presumption of fraud and collusion on the part of the creditor. Also if the master expend money of his own for these purposes, he has a right to call upon the owners to repay him. By the law of several foreign countries, they who repair or fit out a ship, or lend money to be employed in those services, have an absolute hold on the property of the vessel itself; but it is not clear that by the law of England any such hold exists, unless where the ship is already in the possession of the claimant.

HYPOTHECATION. A master may in foreign parts hypothecate the ship. It should be observed that wherever he may pledge the ship, he may pledge the freight also. The contracts by which this is effected are usually called contracts by *bottomry*, the bottom or keel of the ship being figuratively used to express the whole body; sometimes also, but inaccurately, money lent in this manner is said to run at *respondentia*, for that word properly applies to the loan of money upon merchandize laden on board a ship, the repayment of which is made to depend upon the safe arrival of the merchandize at the destined port. In like manner the repayment of money lent on bottomry does, in general, depend on the prosperous conclusion of the voyage; and as the lender sustains the hazard of the voyage, he receives, on its happy termination, a greater price or premium for his money, than the rate of interest allowed by law in ordinary cases. The premium paid on these occasions depends wholly on the contract of the parties, and consequently varies according to the nature of the adventure. And as the master of the ship may, under certain circumstances, pledge the ship by a bottomry contract, so also may the owners or part-owners in any case, to the extent of their respective interests: and this they not unfrequently do, in order to raise money for the outfit, when prudence dictates the propriety of such a measure, or the want of personal credit compels them to have recourse to it. The origin of these contracts is certainly very remote, and cannot now be accurately ascertained. The name of *bottomry* has been sometimes incorrectly applied to a contract, by the terms of which the ship itself is not pledged as a security, but the repayment of money with a high premium for the risk, is made to depend upon the success of a voyage. This is rather a loan upon a particular adventure to be made by a particular ship, than a loan upon the ship; and of course the lender has only the personal security of the borrower for the due performance of the contract. And it seems that loans have sometimes been made in this manner, and probably also with a pledge of the ship itself, to an amount exceeding

exceeding the value of the borrower's interest in the ship, and such a contract is still legal in this country in all cases, except the case of ships belonging to the king's subjects bound to or from the East Indies. With regard, however, to contracts of this sort made by the owners themselves in this country, by the terms of which the ship is pledged as a security, it should be observed that the lender has not the same convenient and advantageous remedy by suit in the admiralty against the ship, as he has in the case of hypothecation for necessities by the master in a foreign port; and if the contract relate to a British ship, and purport to be, either a present assignment of the ship, liable to be defeated on repayment of the money due at the end of the voyage, or a future assignment to take effect only upon failure of such payment, it seems that a compliance with the provisions of the register acts, mentioned before with regard to the transfer of property in ships, is essential to the validity of the contract. Neither does there seem any mode, by which a person, who advances money at *respondentia*, upon goods laden and to be laden on board a ship on an outward and homeward voyage, can resort for the payment of his debt to the specific goods that may be brought back. A contract of hypothecation made by the master does not transfer the property of the ship, but only gives the creditor a privilege or claim upon it, to be carried into effect by legal process. It is obvious that a loan of money upon bottomry, while it relieves the owner from many of the perils of a maritime adventure, deprives him also of a great part of the profits of a successful voyage: and therefore in the place of the owner's residence, where they may exercise their own judgment upon the propriety of borrowing money in this manner, the master of the ship is, by the maritime law of all states, precluded from doing it, so as to bind the interest of his owners, without their consent.

DUTIES OF THE MASTER. The great trust reposed in the master by the owners, and the great authority which the law has vested in him, require on his part, and for his own sake, no less than for the interest of his employers, the utmost fidelity and attention. For if any injury or loss happen to the ship or cargo by reason of his negligence or misconduct, he is personally responsible for it; and although the merchant may elect to sue the owners, *they* will have a remedy against him to make good the damages, which they may be compelled to pay. So, if he make any particular engagement or warranty without a sufficient authority from his owners, although the owners may be answerable to the persons with whom he contracts, by reason of the general power belonging to his situation and character, he is in like manner responsible to the owners for the injuries

injuries sustained by them in consequence of his acting beyond, or in violation of, the particular authority given to him.

It is impossible to frame any set of general rules competent to enforce the performance of all the civil obligations of a person of this description, and the legislature of this country has very prudently declined the attempt. With respect however to the mariners, whose duty is much more simple, the legislature has introduced a few very important rules, which were at first confined to ships sailing from this country to ports beyond the seas; and afterwards extended to the British colonies in America. Similar provisions have been since made with respect to vessels of the burden of one hundred tons and upward, employed in the coasting-trade, and going to open sea.

MARINERS. By these rules, the contract for service must be made by the master, by a written agreement signed by him and the mariners. If, after entering into such agreement, a mariner deserts, or refuses to proceed on the voyage, he forfeits to the owners all the wages then due to him, and a justice of the peace may, on complaint of the master, owner, or person having charge of the ship, issue a warrant to apprehend him, and in case he refuses to proceed on the voyage, and does not assign a sufficient reason for his refusal, may commit him to hard labour in the house of correction, for not more than thirty, nor less than fourteen days. If he absents himself from the ship without the leave of his master, or other chief officer having the charge of the ship, he forfeits two days pay for every such day's absence, to the use of Greenwich hospital. And in the case of foreign voyages, if, upon the ship's arrival at her port of delivery here, he leaves it without a written discharge from the master, or other person having the charge of the ship; or if in the coasting trade, he quits the ship before the voyage is completed and the cargo delivered, or before the expiration of the term for which he engaged, or before he has such a discharge in writing, he forfeits one month's pay to the same use. But these provisions do not extend to debar any seaman from entering to serve his Majesty on board any of his ships.

By the common law, the master has an authority over all the mariners on board the ship, and it is their duty to obey his commands in all lawful matters relating to the navigation of the vessel, and the preservation of good order: and such obedience they expressly promise to yield to him by the agreement usually made for their service. In case of disobedience or disorderly conduct, he may lawfully correct them in a reasonable manner; his authority in this respect being analogous to that of a parent over his child, or of a master over his apprentice or scholar.

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Such an authority is absolutely necessary to the safety of the ship, and the lives of the persons on board; but it behoves the master to be very careful in the exercise of it, and not make his parental power a pretext for cruelty and oppression. The master should, except in cases requiring his immediate interposition, take the advice of the persons below him in authority, as well to prevent the operation of passion in his own breast, as to secure witnesses to the propriety of his conduct; for the master, on his return to this country, may be called upon by action at law, to answer a mariner, who has been beaten or imprisoned by him, or his order, in the course of a voyage; and for the justification of his conduct, he should be able to show, not only that there was a sufficient cause for chastisement, but also that the chastisement itself was reasonable and moderate, otherwise the mariner may recover damages proportionate to the injury received. And if the master strike a mariner without cause, or use a deadly weapon as an instrument of correction where moderate correction may be inflicted, and death ensue, he will be guilty either of manslaughter or murder, according to the rules and distinctions of the criminal law of England in analogous cases, which are all applicable to persons in this situation; and by the late extension of the jurisdiction of the commissioners appointed for the trial of crimes committed at sea, all offences there may now be tried before them, and punished as if committed on shore: in the case of actual and open mutiny by the crew or any part of them, the resistance of the master becomes an act of self-defence, and is to be considered, in all its consequences, in that point of view.

But although the master may by force restrain the commission of great crimes, he has no judicial authority to punish the criminal, but ought to secure his person, and cause him to be brought before a proper tribunal of his country. By a late statute, 39 Geo. III. c. 80. all justices of the peace are empowered to receive information touching any murder, piracy, felony, or robbery upon the sea, and to commit the offenders for trial.

In general also, the master may, for misbehaviour, discharge a mariner from his service in the ship; but in the African slave trade, the master of a British ship is forbidden to do this, on any pretence whatever, unless he turns him over to one of his Majesty's ships of war, or to assist a ship in actual distress. And in this trade, if any officer, mariner, or seaman, shall behave in a riotous, seditious, or mutinous manner, the master may put him into confinement, but must within twenty-four hours report to the commander of any of his Majesty's ships present, or within a convenient distance, who is authorized to inquire

inquire and examine upon oath, into the cause of complaint, and grant such remedy as the case may require: if no such ship is present, the cause of complaint may be examined by the master and two officers, in the presence of the ship's company; and if it shall be judged necessary for the safety of the ship and cargo, to continue the offender in confinement, such determination shall be drawn up in writing, and the reasons of the resolutions stated at large, and signed by the master and two officers, which they are to report without delay to the commander of the first of his Majesty's ships they may fall in with, and, in default thereof, to the governor or chief officer of any British fort in Africa, or the governor of any of the West India Islands, on arrival at any port or road therein, that proper measures may be taken to bring the offender to justice.

BARRATRY. The term barratry, which is often used as well by foreign writers as those of our own nation, is generally understood in this, and in most other countries, to denote a fraudulent act of the master or mariners, committed to the prejudice of the owners of the ship. In France it is often used in a more enlarged sense, and comprehends acts of mere ignorance or unskilfulness, not accompanied with a fraudulent design. This word, taken even in the most limited sense, in which it is used in this country, does not denominate any species of crime punishable by law; but several offences committed by the master and mariners, in violation of their trust and duty, and which fall within the definition of barratry, are punishable by different statutes.

OTHER OFFENCES. The offence of wilfully destroying the ship is punishable with death; those of running away with the ship or cargo, and of making a revolt, in the same manner. As to the offence of not resisting pirates and enemies, it appears formerly to have been a practice with the Turkish pirates to restore a ship, and the goods of the master and mariners, and sometimes even to pay the whole, or a part, of the freight, if the ship yielded to them, and they were suffered to take out the cargo without resistance. To prevent this practice, a statute was passed in the reign of Charles II. by which the master of any vessel of a burden not less than two hundred tons, and furnished with sixteen guns, is forbidden to yield his cargo to pirates of any force, without resistance, on pain of being incapable to take charge of any English vessel afterwards. And if the ship is released, and any thing given by the pirates to the master, such gift and his share of the ship are to go to the owners of the goods. And any ship of less burden or force than before mentioned is forbidden to yield

to a Turkish pirate, not having double her number of guns, without fighting. The statute also inflicts imprisonment and other punishments on those who refuse to fight, and makes the offence of voluntarily yielding to pirates a capital crime. Due means are also taken by the statutes for rewarding those who have been wounded, and providing for the relatives of those who have been killed in such actions; and, as already has been mentioned, seamen wounded on these occasions have a right in common with those in the royal navy, to the relief afforded by Greenwich hospital. And, as a preference is given according to the duration of service, the master of each ship is obliged to keep a muster roll of the persons employed on board, and, before its departure, deliver a duplicate to the collector at the port; and during the voyage enter the time and place of discharge, quitting, and desertion, and of receiving other persons on board, and of any hurt, damage, death, or drowning, of which he must also deliver a duplicate at his return under the penalty of 20*l.*: to the truth whereof he may be examined upon oath by the collector. And in case any person employed on board any ship shall, in doing his duty on shore or on board, break an arm or leg, or be otherwise hurt or maimed, he is to be properly relieved until sufficiently recovered to be sent to the place to which the ship belongs.

By the ancient marine ordinances, if a mariner falls sick during a voyage, or is hurt in the performance of his duty, he is to be cured at the expense of the ship, but not if he receives an injury in the pursuit of his own private concerns. If by shipwreck, capture, or other unavoidable accident, any seafaring men or boys, subjects of Great Britain, are cast away in foreign parts, the governors, ministers, and consuls appointed by his Majesty, or, where none such are resident, two or more British merchants there residing, are required to provide for and subsist them, at the rate of sixpence per day, for which they are to send bills with proper vouchers to the commissioners of the navy, and to put them on board the first ship belonging to his Majesty that arrives there, or within a convenient distance; and in case no such ship shall be found, to send them on board such merchant ships bound for Great Britain as shall be in want of men: and if neither case happens within a convenient time, to provide them a passage homeward in the first merchant ship bound for Great Britain, of which the master is bound to receive not exceeding four persons for every one hundred tons of his ship's burden; and he is to be paid sixpence per day by the commissioners of the navy for such of them as he did not want toward his own complement of men. If a master of a merchant ship, being abroad, shall force any man on shore, or wilfully leave him behind in any of his Majesty's plantations, or elsewhere, or

refuse to bring home again all such of the men he carried out with him as are in a condition to return, when he shall be ready to proceed on his homeward-bound voyage, every such master, on conviction, shall suffer three months imprisonment.

CHARTER-PARTY. The contract by charter-party is one by which an entire ship, or some principal part, is let to a merchant for the conveyance of goods on a determined voyage. The term charter-party is generally understood to be a corruption of the Latin words *charta partita*: the two parts of this and other instruments being usually written, in former times, on one piece of parchment, which was afterwards divided by a straight line cut through some word or figure, so that one part should fit and tally with the other, as evidence of their original agreement and correspondence, and to prevent the fraudulent substitution of a fictitious instrument for the real deed of the parties. With the same design indentation was afterwards introduced; and deeds of more than one part thereby acquired among English lawyers the name of indentures. This practice of division has however long been disused, and that of indentation is become a mere form. The execution and effect of these deeds of charter-party are the subject of many legal distinctions too nice to be here specified.

DEMURRAGE. Demurrage is an allowance made to the master of a ship by the merchants, for staying in a port longer than the time first appointed for his departure. The word "days" used alone in a clause of demurrage for unloading in the river Thames, is said to be understood of working days only, and not to comprehend Sundays or holidays, by the usage among merchants in London; but it is much better to mention working or running days expressly, according to the intention of the parties. The payment of demurrage, stipulated to be made while a ship is waiting for convoy, ceases as soon as the convoy is ready to depart; and such payment, stipulated to be made while a ship is waiting to receive a cargo, ceases, when the ship is fully laden, and the necessary clearances are obtained, although the ship may in either case happen to be further detained by adverse winds, or tempestuous weather. And if the ship has once set sail and departed, but is afterwards driven into port, the claim of demurrage is not thereby revived.

CONVEYANCE OF MERCHANDIZE. The contract for the conveyance of merchandize in a general ship, is that by which the masters and owners of a ship, destined on a particular voyage, engage separately with various merchants unconnected with each other, to convey their respective goods to the place of the ship's destination. When a ship is in-

tended to be thus employed, it is usual in London, and other places, to give notice of the intention by printed papers and cards, mentioning the name and destination of the ship; her burthen, and sometimes her force; and sometimes expressing also that the ship is to sail with convoy, or with the first convoy for the voyage, or other matters relating thereto. Such expression is an assurance or warranty to the merchant, who lades goods in pursuance of the advertisement, and becomes a part of the contract with him, although it be not afterwards contained in the bill of lading.

When goods are sent on board the ship, the master, or person on board acting for him, usually gives a receipt for them, and the master afterwards signs and delivers to the merchant sometimes two, and sometimes three, parts of a bill of lading, of which the merchant commonly sends one or two to his agent, factor, or other person, to whom the goods are to be delivered at the place of destination; that is, one on board the ship with the goods, another by the post or other conveyance, and one he retains for his own security. The master should take care to have another part for his own use.

GENERAL DUTIES OF THE MASTER AND OWNERS. In whatever way the contract for the conveyance of merchandize is made, the master and owners are bound to the performance of various duties of a general nature. The first duty is to provide a vessel, tight and staunch, and furnished with all tackle and apparel necessary for the intended voyage. For if the merchant suffer loss or damage by reason of any insufficiency in these particulars at the outset of the voyage, he will be intitled to a recompence. She must also be adequately manned, and where a pilot is required, one must be taken on board.

The manner of receiving goods on board, and the commencement of the master's duty in this respect, depend on the custom of the particular place. More or less is to be done by wharfingers or lightermen, according to the usage. If the master receive goods at the quay or beach, or send his boat for them, his responsibility commences with the receipt. He must provide a sufficient number of persons to protect them; for, even if the crew are overpowered by superior force, and the goods stolen, while the ship is in a port or river within the body of a county, the master and owners will be answerable for the loss, although they have been guilty of neither fraud nor fault; the law in this instance holding them responsible from reasons of public policy,

policy, and to prevent the combinations, that might otherwise be made with thieves and robbers.

It is, in all cases, the duty of the master to provide ropes and tackle proper for the actual reception of the goods into the ship; and if a cask be accidentally staved in letting it down into the hold of the ship, the master must answer for the loss. The ship must also be furnished with proper dunnage (pieces of wood placed against the sides and bottom of the hold) to preserve the cargo from the effects of leakage, according to its nature and quality; and care must be taken by the master (unless by usage or agreement this business is to be performed by persons hired by the merchant), so to stow and arrange the different articles of which the cargo consists, that they may not be injured by each other, or by the motion or leakage of the ship. No more must be taken on board, than the ship can conveniently carry, leaving room for her own furniture, provisions, and for working; nor any contraband goods; nor false or colourable papers, that may subject the ship to capture or detention. The master must procure and keep on board all the papers and documents required for the manifestation and protection of the ship and cargo; and where, by the terms of a charter-party, a number of days are appointed for the lading of the cargo, the master must not sail before the expiration of the time.

All things being thus prepared for the commencement of the voyage, the master must forthwith obtain the necessary clearances, pay the port and other charges, and commence his voyage without delay, as soon as the weather is favourable; but on no account during tempestuous weather. If there has been an undertaking or warranty to sail with convoy, the vessel must repair to the place of rendezvous, and the master must put himself under the protection of the ships of war appointed by government. A warranty that the vessel shall sail with convoy is very common in a policy of insurance, and in that case, if it be not complied with, the insurance becomes absolutely void, and the insurers are not answerable for a loss happening by tempest, or other accident wholly independent of the subject of the warranty, for which they would otherwise be liable. The convoy must be a ship or ships of war, expressly appointed by government, or by the commander in chief on a particular station. The protection of a ship of war accidentally bound on the same voyage, although discharging the office of a convoy, is not a convoy within the meaning of this warranty.

Having commenced his voyage, the master must proceed to the place of destination without delay, and without stopping at

any other intermediate port, or deviating from the straight and shortest course, unless such stopping or deviation be necessary to repair the ship from the effects of accident or tempest, or to avoid enemies or pirates, by whom he has good reason to suspect that he shall be attacked if he proceeds in the ordinary track, and whom he has good reason to hope that he may escape by delay or deviation; or, unless the ship sails to the places resorted to in long voyages for a supply of water or provisions, by common and established usage.

When the ship has arrived at the place of her destination, the master must take care that she is safely moored or anchored, and, without delay, deliver the cargo to the merchant or his consignees, upon production of the bills of lading, and payment of the freight, and other charges: and if, by the terms of the charter-party, a particular number of days is stipulated for the delivery, either generally, or by way of demurrage, he must wait the appointed time. These charges are, in ordinary cases, *primage*, and the usual *petty average*, as expressed in the bill of lading. The cargo is bound to the ship, as well as the ship to the cargo; and, therefore (unless there is a stipulation to the contrary), the master is not bound absolutely to part with the possession of any of his cargo, until the freight and other charges, due in respect of such part, are paid. In England, the practice is to send the goods to a wharf, and order the wharfinger not to part with them, till the freight and other charges are paid, if the master is doubtful of payment. And, by the law of England, if the master once parts with the possession out of the hands of himself and his agents, he loses his lien or hold upon the goods, and cannot afterwards reclaim them.

The manner of delivering the goods, and consequently, the period at which the responsibility of the master and owners will cease, depend on local custom, and the usage of particular trades. Thus a hoyman, who brings goods from an out-port into the port of London, is not discharged by landing them at the usual wharf, but is bound to take care and send them out by land to the place of consignment. And, if the consignee require to have the goods delivered to himself, and direct the master not to land them on a wharf at London, the master must obey the request; for the wharfinger has no legal right to insist upon the goods being landed at his wharf, although the vessel be moored against it. But in the case of ships coming from a foreign country, delivery at a wharf in London discharges the master. If the consignee send a lighter to fetch the goods, the master of the ship is obliged, by the custom of the river Thames, to watch them in the lighter, until the lighter is fully laden, and

and until the regular time of its departure from the ship is arrived; and he cannot discharge himself from this obligation, by declaring to the lighterman that he has not hands to guard the lighter, unless the consignee consent to release him from the performance of it.

GENERAL DUTIES OF THE MERCHANT. The general duties of the merchant (those only excepted, which relate to the payment of freight and of gross average) are comprised in a very narrow compass: the hirer of any thing must use it in a lawful manner, and according to the purpose for which it is let. The merchant must lade no prohibited or uncustomed goods, by which the ship may be subjected to detention or forfeiture. In general, even in the case of affreightment by charter-party, the command of the ship is reserved to the owners, or the master appointed by them, and therefore the merchant has not the power or opportunity of detaining the ship beyond the stipulated time, or employing it in any other than the stipulated service. Where a merchant having taken a ship to freight, declines to lade her in pursuance of his agreement; or before the commencement, or during the course, of the voyage withdraws his goods from the ship; or, having hired a ship to go to a distant port, and engaged to furnish a cargo homeward, fails to do so, whereby the ship is forced to return empty, the law of England leaves the amount of the compensation to be ascertained by a jury, who form their estimate on a consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and of the real injury sustained.

PRIMAGE. By the bill of lading the master undertakes to deliver the goods on payment of freight with primage and average accustomed. The word *primage* denotes a small payment to the master for his care and trouble, which he is to receive to his own use, unless he has otherwise agreed with his owners. This payment appears to have been of very ancient date, and to be variously regulated in different voyages and trades. In the *Guidon* it is called "*la contribution des chausses ou pot de vin du maitre.*" It is sometimes called the master's hat money. The word *average* in this place denotes several petty charges, which are to be borne partly by the ship and partly by the cargo, such as the expense of towing, beaconage, &c. This and the primage are often commuted for a specific sum, or a certain per centage upon the freight.

FREIGHT. The contract for the conveyance of merchandize is in its nature an entire contract: and unless it be completely performed, by the delivery of the goods at the place of destination, the merchant will in general derive no benefit from the time and labour expended in a partial conveyance, and conse-

quently be subject to no payment whatever, although the ship may have been hired by the month or week. The cases in which a partial payment may be claimed, are exceptions to the general rule, founded upon principles of equity and justice, as applicable to particular circumstances. On the other hand, an interruption of the regular course of the voyage, happening without the fault of the owner, does not deprive him of his freight, if the ship afterwards proceed with the cargo to the place of destination, as in the case of capture and recapture. In such a case however there will be a deduction for salvage: and if the ship were hired by the week or month, it may be doubted whether the merchant be chargeable for the period of detention. But although the delivery of the goods at the place of destination is in general necessary to entitle the owner to the freight, yet with respect to living animals, which may frequently die during the voyage without any fault or neglect of the persons belonging to the ship, it is said, that if there be no express agreement whether the freight is to be paid for the lading, or for the transporting them, freight shall be paid as well for the dead as the living; if the agreement be to pay freight for the lading them, their death certainly cannot deprive the owners of the freight; but if the agreement be to pay for freight for *transporting* them, then no freight is due for those that die on the voyage. When the goods are sent in a general ship, the amount of the freight is either settled by the agreement of the parties, or by the usage of the trade. In the case of the charter-party, if the stipulated payment is a gross sum for an entire ship, or an entire part of a ship, for the whole voyage; the gross sum will be payable, although the merchant has not fully laden the ship; and if a certain sum is stipulated for every ton, or other portion of the ship's capacity, for the whole voyage, the payment must be according to the number of tons, &c. which the ship is proved capable of containing, without regard to the quantity actually put on board by the merchant. On the other hand, if the merchant has stipulated to pay a certain sum per cask or bale of goods, the payment must be, in the first place, according to the number of casks or bales shipped and delivered; and if he has further covenanted to furnish a complete lading, or a specific number of casks or bales, and failed to do so, he must make good the loss which the owners have sustained by his failure, to be settled in case of disagreement, by a jury.

AVERAGE. Average is the general contribution that is to be made by all parties towards a loss sustained by some for the benefit of all. This contribution is sometimes called by the

name of *general* average, to distinguish it from *special* or *particular* average, a very incorrect expression, used to denote every kind of partial loss or damage happening either to the ship or cargo, from any cause whatever; and sometimes by the name of *gross* average, to distinguish it from customary average mentioned in the bill of lading; which latter species is sometimes called also *petty* average. The principle of this general contribution is derived from the ancient laws of Rhodes, and adopted by all commercial nations, though with many variations in practice. The rule of the Rhodian law is this: "If goods are thrown overboard in order to lighten a ship, the loss incurred for the sake of all, shall be made good by the contribution of all." The goods must be thrown overboard; the mind and agency of man must be employed: if the goods are forced out of the ship by the violence of the waves, or are destroyed in the ship by lightning or tempest, the merchant alone must bear the loss. They must be thrown overboard to lighten the ship; if they are cast overboard by the wanton caprice of the crew or the passengers, they, or the master and owners for them, must make good the loss. The goods must be thrown overboard for the sake of all; not because the ship is too heavily laden to prosecute an ordinary course through a tranquil sea, which would be the fault of those who had shipped or received the goods; but, because at a moment of distress and danger, their weight, or their presence, prevents the extraordinary exertions required for the general safety. When the ship is in danger of perishing from the violent agitation of the wind, or from the quantity of water, that may have forced a way into it, or is labouring on a rock, or a shallow, upon which it may have been driven by a tempest; or when a pirate or an enemy pursues, gains upon and is ready to overtake, no measure, that may facilitate the motion and passage of the ship, can be really injurious to any one, who is interested in the welfare of any part of the adventure, and every such measure may be beneficial to almost all. In such emergencies, therefore, when the mind of the brave is appalled, it is lawful to have recourse to every mode of preservation, and to cast out the goods in order to lighten the ship, for the sake of all. But if the ship and the residue of the cargo be saved from the peril by the voluntary destruction or abandonment of part of the goods, equity requires that the safety of some should not be purchased at the expense of others, and, therefore, all must contribute to the loss.

And not only may the loss of goods become the subject of general contribution, but also, in some cases, the expense incurred in relation to them. Thus, if it be necessary to unlade

the goods in order to repair the damage done to a ship by tempest, so as to enable it to prosecute and complete the voyage, it seems that the expense of unlading, warehousing, and re-shipping the goods, should be sustained by general contribution, because all persons are interested in the execution of the measures necessary to the completion of the voyage. The rule mentions goods only; but its principle extends also to the ship, and its equipage and furniture. By the law of most of the continental nations of Europe, the injury done by one ship to another, or to its cargo, without fault in the persons belonging to either ship, is to be equally borne by the owners of the two vessels; but, by the law of England, in the case of damage happening in this manner, either to ship or cargo, by her misfortune, and without fault in any one, the proprietors of the ship or cargo injured must bear their own loss. Such a misfortune is considered as a peril of the sea.

SALVAGE. Salvage is the compensation to be made to other persons, by whose assistance a ship or its lading may be saved from impending peril, or recovered after actual loss. This compensation at present is commonly made by a payment in money, but, in the infancy of commerce, was more frequently made by the delivery of some portion of the specific articles saved or recovered. In some codes, the value to be paid is fixed at a certain portion of the articles saved, or of their value, according to their nature and quality, or the circumstances of the case; but the law of England has fixed no positive rule or rate of salvage, but directs only, as a general principle, that a reasonable compensation shall be made. The legislators of all civilized and commercial states, in modern times, have laboured earnestly to repress, by due severity of punishment, the barbarous spirit of plundering the helpless and distressed mariner, whose situation calls for assistance and relief. And very salutary provisions have been made on this subject by the wisdom of our own parliaments. A person, who by his own labour preserves goods, which the owner, or those intrusted with the care of them, have either abandoned in distress at sea, or are unable to protect and secure, is entitled, by the common law of England, to retain the possession of the goods saved, until a proper compensation is made to him for his trouble. This compensation, if the parties cannot agree upon it, may, by the same law, be ascertained by a jury in an action brought by the salvor against the proprietor of the goods: or the proprietor may tender to the salvor such sum of money as he thinks sufficient, and, upon refusal to deliver the goods, bring an action against the salvor; and if the jury think the sum tendered sufficient, he will recover his goods or their value, and the costs of his suit. If the sal-

vage is performed at sea, the Court of Admiralty has jurisdiction over the subject, and will fix the sum to be paid, and adjust the proportions, and take care of the property pending the suit; or, if a sale is necessary, direct a sale to be made, and divide the proceeds between the salvors and the proprietors, according to equity and reason. A passenger is not entitled to make any claim for the ordinary assistance he may be enabled to afford to the vessel in distress; it being the duty, as well as the interest, of all persons on board, of every description, to contribute their aid on such an occasion.

With respect to the salvage on recapture, it may be taken as a general proposition, liable only to one exception, that the ships or goods of the subjects of this country taken at sea by an enemy, and afterwards retaken at any indefinite period of time, and whether before or after sentence of condemnation, are to be restored to their original proprietors upon payment of salvage to the recaptors. By acts of Geo. I. and II., the rate of salvage was fixed at one-eighth in the case of recapture by the king's ships; but if by private ships, whether acting with or without commission, the rate was varied according to the length of time, during which the vessel might have been in the possession of the enemy; if it had not exceeded twenty-four hours, one-eighth; between twenty-four and forty-eight, one-fifth; between forty-eight and ninety-six, one-third; and above ninety-six, one half. And, in all cases, if the vessel recaptured were set forth as a vessel of war, during its possession by the enemy, the rate of salvage was fixed at one-half. The variation of the rate of salvage according to the time of the enemy's possession, probably occasioned many disputes; and, therefore, in the statutes passed in the present reign, the rate has been uniformly fixed. In the American war, it was one-eighth, as well in the case of private as of king's ships: except in the case of vessels set forth as ships of war, when it was fixed at one-half. At the commencement of the war, in 1793, the rate was one-eighth for the Royal Navy, and one-sixth for private ships; and, in case of recapture by the joint operation of his Majesty's ships, and private ships, the judge of the court might order such salvage as he should deem fit and reasonable: but ships, set forth by the enemy as vessels of war, should wholly belong to the recaptors. By this last statute, a ship retaken before she has been carried into an enemy's port, may, with the consent of the recaptors, prosecute her voyage, and they need not proceed to adjudication till six months, or the return of the ship to the port from which she sailed: and, by their consent, the cargo may be unloaded and disposed of, before adjudication: and if the vessel does not return directly to the port of
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her departure, or the recaptors have had no opportunity to proceed to adjudication within six months, on account of the absence of the vessel, the Court of Admiralty shall, at the instance of the recaptors, decree restitution to the former owners, paying salvage, upon such evidence as shall appear reasonable, the expense of such proceedings not to exceed the sum of fourteen pounds. Similar provisions were made at the beginning of the war in 1803; and the same rate of salvage is fixed for his Majesty's hired armed ships, as for the Royal Navy.

HIRING OF SEAMEN. Seamen employed in merchant ships are usually hired at a certain sum, either by the month or for the voyage. In the fishing trade, particularly the whale fishery, and in private ships of war, the seamen usually serve under an engagement to receive a certain portion of the profits of the adventure. An engagement to receive a certain part of the freight, to be earned by a merchant ship, which seems formerly to have been not unfrequent, is at present seldom, if ever made. In order to prevent the mischiefs that frequently arose from the want of proper proof of the precise terms upon which seamen engaged to perform their service in merchant ships, it was enacted by 2 Geo. II. c. 36. that it shall not be lawful for any master or commander of any vessel, bound to parts beyond the seas, to carry any seamen, except his apprentices, to sea from any port or place, where he or they were entered or shipped, without first coming to an agreement or contract with such seamen for their wages; the agreement to be in writing, declaring what wages each seaman is to have during the whole voyage, or for so long time as he shall ship himself for; and also to express the voyage which the seaman was shipped to perform, under a penalty of 5*l.* for each mariner carried to sea without such agreement, to be forfeited by the master to the use of Greenwich hospital. This agreement is to be signed by each mariner within three days after he shall have entered himself on board the ship; and is, when signed, conclusive and binding upon all parties. A subsequent statute has extended these provisions to all his Majesty's colonies in America; and by another, a similar agreement in writing is required to be signed by the master and mariners of vessels of the burthen of one hundred tons or upwards, employed in the coasting trade from one port to another in Great Britain and going to open sea.

With regard to ships trading to the West Indies, it was enacted by the 37 Geo. III. c. 73. that every seaman deserting during the voyage either out or home, shall, over and above all previous punishments and penalties, forfeit all the wages agreed for with the master of the ship, on board which he shall enter immediately after

after such desertion. And every master of any British merchant ship, who shall hire or engage any seaman, or other person who has to his knowledge deserted from any other ship, shall forfeit 100*l*. This last clause is held to extend to all cases, and not to be confined to the West India trade. The statute also provides against the hiring of mariners at exorbitant wages. A seaman, who has engaged to serve on board a ship, is bound to exert himself to the utmost in the service of the ship; and therefore a promise made by the master when a ship was in distress, to pay an extra sum to a mariner as an inducement to extraordinary exertions on his part, was esteemed to be wholly void.

WAGES. It is obvious that a seaman, who has served faithfully during a voyage, is entitled to receive the stipulated reward, if no disaster has rendered his service useless or unproductive to his employer. And as a seaman is exposed to the hazard of losing the reward of his faithful service, during a considerable period in certain cases, so on the other hand the law gives him his whole wages, even when he has been unable to render his service, if his inability has proceeded from any hurt received in the performance of his duty, or from natural sickness happening to him in the course of the voyage. And if a master in violation of his contract discharges a seaman from the ship during a voyage, the seaman shall be entitled to his full wages up to the prosperous termination of the voyage, deducting, if the case require it, such sum as he may in the mean time have earned in another vessel.

As to the time of payment, by the articles of agreement annexed to the statute made for preventing the desertion of seamen from ships trading to the West Indies, and which are in common use for other voyages also, it is stipulated, that the seamen shall not demand or be entitled to any part of their wages until the arrival of the ship at the intended port of discharge, and delivery of her cargo, nor in less than twenty days if they are not employed in such delivery. Policy requires that the wages of seamen should not be paid to them in foreign countries, as well to prevent desertion, as to preserve for the benefit of their families the money that might otherwise be spent in idleness and debauchery.

The time of payment of wages is also regulated and enforced by statutes. Thus, as to ships engaged in foreign voyages, it is enacted, that upon the arrival of any such ship in Great Britain, the master shall be obliged to pay the seamen their wages in thirty days after the ship's entry at the custom house (except in a case of a covenant to the contrary) or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen, deducting the

the penalties and forfeitures imposed by the act, under penalty of twenty shillings over and above the wages due to each person. And in ships employed in the coasting trade, the master is to pay the seamen their wages, within five days after entry at the custom house, or delivery of the cargo, or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen, unless an agreement shall have been made to the contrary, deducting, in every case, the penalties imposed by this act, under the like forfeiture of twenty shillings. When a ship employed in the slave trade arrives at her discharging port in Great Britain, the officers and seamen are continued in full pay and provisions, until she is cleared inwards, or their accounts are settled and paid.

LOSS AND FORFEITURE OF WAGES. The wages of seamen, whether hired by the month or for the voyage, are sometimes lost without any fault on their part; and sometimes forfeited by their misconduct. In order to stimulate the zeal and attention of this class of persons, who are often engaged in very perilous services, the policy of all maritime states has made the payment of their wages to depend upon the successful termination of the voyage. If by any disaster, such as loss or capture, the owners lose their freight, the seamen also lose their wages. The payment of wages is divisible, and if a ship has delivered its cargo at one place, the wages are so far due, although the ship be afterwards taken or sunk; but if a ship sail to one place in order to take in a cargo there, to be conveyed to another place, and having received the cargo accordingly, be taken before its arrival at the place of delivery, nothing is payable to the seamen for navigating the ship to the first place, because no freight is thereby gained.

Desertion is held to be a forfeiture of the wages previously earned in all maritime states; and 11 and 12 William III. c. 7. confirms it as the law of England. By 2 Geo. II. c. 36. if a seaman shall desert, or refuse to proceed on his voyage after he shall have signed the contract, he shall forfeit to the owners the wages due to him at the time. By the articles of agreement usually signed in these cases, it is stipulated that the mariner shall not go out of the ship on board any other vessel, or be on shore under any pretence whatever, without leave, and that in default he shall be liable to the penalties of this act: but this stipulation is merely referable to the statute, and does not create a forfeiture of wages in a case where the statute has not inflicted it; as in the case of leaving the ship after her arrival in a port of this country, although before she is moored. This case is specifically provided for by another section of the same statute, which enacts, that in case any seaman or mariner
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not entering into his Majesty's service, shall leave the ship or vessel to which he belongs, before he shall have a discharge in writing from the master or commander, or other proper person, he shall forfeit one month's pay to the use of Greenwich hospital. The same statute authorizes the master to deduct from the wages due to a mariner all the penalties and forfeitures incurred by the act, and to enter them in a book to be kept for that purpose to be signed by the master and two or more principal officers: and it has been held that the master cannot make this deduction unless the forfeiture has been regularly entered in a book as the statute directs.

With respect to ships of the burden of one hundred tons and upwards, employed in the coasting trade and going to open sea; if a seaman, having signed the requisite agreement, neglects or refuses to proceed on the intended voyage, he forfeits to the owners all the wages due to him at that time; but the forfeiture for desertion afterwards, and before the voyage or voyages agreed upon, or upon which such ship shall have proceeded, shall be completed, and the cargo of such ship delivered, or before the seaman shall have a discharge in writing from the master, &c. is only of one month's wages to the use of Greenwich hospital.

In all cases, a seaman, who wilfully absents himself from the ship without leave, forfeits to the use of Greenwich hospital two days' pay for each day's absence. In the coasting trade, the statute directs, that if a seaman is hired by the voyage, the period of which exceeds one lunar month, one month's pay shall be accounted a sum bearing the same proportion to the whole wages, as a lunar month bears to the whole voyage; and two days' pay shall be computed in the same manner. If the whole voyage does not exceed a month, the forfeiture is of the whole wages: and the like as to the forfeiture of two days' pay, if the voyage does not exceed two days.

The legislature has also punished with the forfeiture of wages the offence of neglecting or refusing to assist the master in defending the ship against the attack of pirates. It seems also that neglect of duty, disobedience of orders, habitual drunkenness, or any cause, which will justify a master in discharging a seaman during the voyage, will also deprive the seaman of his wages.

If the cargo be embezzled or injured by the fraud or negligence of the seamen, so that the merchant has a right to claim a satisfaction from the master and owners, they may, by the custom of merchants, deduct the value from the wages of the seamen, by whose misconduct the injury has taken place. And the last proviso introduced into the usual agreement signed by the

the seamen, is calculated to enforce this rule in the case of embezzlement either of the cargo, or of the ship's stores.

INSURANCE. Insurance is a contract whereby one party, in consideration of a stipulated sum, undertakes to indemnify the other against certain perils or risks to which he is exposed, or against the happening of some event. The party who takes upon himself the risk is called the *insurer*, sometimes the *underwriter*, from his subscribing his name at the foot of the policy; the party protected by the insurance is called the *insured*; the sum paid to the insurer, as the price of the risk, is called the *premium*; and the written instrument, in which the contract is set forth and reduced into form, is called a *policy of insurance*. The utility of this species of contract in a commercial country is obvious, and has been taken notice of by very distinguished writers upon commercial affairs. Insurances give great security to the fortunes of private people, and by dividing amongst many that loss, which would ruin an individual, make it fall light and easy upon the whole society. This security tends greatly to the advancement of trade and navigation, because the risk of transporting and exporting being diminished, men are more easily induced to engage in an extensive trade, to assist in important undertakings, and to join in hazardous enterprizes; since a failure in the object will not be attended with those dreadful consequences to them and their families, which must be the case in a country where insurances are unknown. The origin of insurance is involved in obscurity, but, wherever foreign commerce has been introduced, insurance must have soon followed as a necessary attendant, it being impossible to carry on any very extensive trade without it, especially in time of war.

POLICIES. The policy is a written instrument, by which the contract of insurance is effected and reduced into form. The term policy of insurance, or assurance, as it is sometimes called, is derived from the Italian, *polizza di assicurazione*, or *di sicurtanza*, or *di sicurtà*, and in that language signifies a *note* or *bill of security*, or indemnity. As the premium, which is the consideration of the promise made by the insurer, is paid, or supposed to be paid, at the time the policy is subscribed, the contract contains nothing in nature of a counter-promise, to be performed by the insured. In general, therefore, it contains only the contract on the part of the insurers, and is signed only by them.

Policies, with reference to the *reality of the interest* of the insured, are distinguished into *interest*, and *wager policies*. With reference to the *amount* of the interest, they are distinguished into *open* and *valued*.

An *interest policy* is where the insured has a real, substantial, assignable interest in the thing insured, in which case only it is a contract of indemnity.

A *wager policy* is a pretended insurance, founded on an ideal risk, where the insured has no interest in the thing insured, and can therefore sustain no loss by the happening of any of the misfortunes insured against. Insurances of this sort are usually expressed by the words, "*interest or no interest*," or "*without further proof of interest* than the policy," or, "*without benefit of salvage to the insurer*."

An *open policy* is where the amount of the interest of the insured is not fixed by the policy; but is left to be ascertained by the insured, in case a loss should happen.

A *valued policy* is where a value has been set on the ship or goods insured, and that value inserted in the policy in nature of liquidated damages to save the necessity of proving it, in case of a total loss: for, by allowing the value to be thus inserted in the policy, the insurer agrees that it shall be taken as there stated. This value is, or ought to be the real value of the ship, or the prime cost of the goods, at the time of effecting the policy.

The essentials in the contract of insurance are: 1st, the name of the person for whom the insurance is made, his agent or trustee: 2^d, the names of the ship and master: 3^d, whether they are ships, goods, or merchandize, upon which the insurance is made: 4th, the name of the place where the goods are laden, and whither they are bound: 5th, the time when the risk begins, and when it ends: 6th, all the various perils and risks which the insurer takes upon himself: 7th, the consideration or premium, paid for the risk or hazard run: 8th, the month, day, and year, on which the policy is executed: and 9th, the stamps required by act of parliament.

PARTIES. In this country, all persons, whether British subjects or aliens, may, in general, be insured. The principal, if not the only exception to this rule is, the case of an alien enemy. It was long a disputed question, whether in point of policy, the insurance of the property of the enemies of the state, in time of war, ought to be tolerated, and the question has, more than once, been agitated in parliament. In 1741, a bill was brought into the House of Commons to prohibit the insurances on the ships and effects belonging to the subjects of France, then at war with Great Britain. The arguments of Sir John Bernard against the policy of such a restriction, though answered by Sir Robert Walpole and others, by arguments much more cogent and satisfactory, seem to have had greater effect than they merited; for though the bill was committed,
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it was afterwards dropped. In 1748, however, a bill was again brought in, to prohibit insuring the ships and merchandize of the subjects of France, during the war; and, though this was strenuously opposed by Sir Dudley Ryder and Mr. Murray, then attorney and solicitor general, upon what they considered to be principles of policy and expediency, yet it passed into a law. The 33 Geo. III. c. 27. not only declares such insurances to be void, but also subjects the parties concerned in them to three months imprisonment, so that, to judge by the opinion of the legislature, the policy of such a prohibition seems to be now well established.

UNDERWRITERS. Insurance requires great prudence and circumspection in the underwriters. They should be expert in analysing risks and calculating probabilities; in foreseeing the dangers of the sea, and the danger of fraud. They should be able to form a sound judgment by combining all circumstances, and comparing them with the rate of premium. To form such a judgment, in many cases requires great sagacity, penetration, and experience. But if men possessing all these advantages are sometimes deceived, what must be the situation of those who, allured by the desire of gain, blindly put their signatures to every policy that is presented to them, without considering the precipice to which their temerity leads them. A wise underwriter will judge for himself, and not implicitly follow others who may have subscribed before him, however remarkable for sagacity and prudence.

ASSURANCE COMPANIES. At common law, any man, or company of men, might be insurers; and individuals, upon their own separate account, have still the same right; but, it was supposed, about the beginning of the eighteenth century, that commerce had suffered considerably by persons in insolvent circumstances underwriting policies of insurance; and having received large sums in premiums, becoming bankrupts, or otherwise failing in making good their losses. To remedy this, but more, perhaps, to enable government to raise a sum of money by the sale of a monopoly, it was thought expedient to create two companies for the purpose of making marine insurances, with such funds to answer all demands on their policies as might give confidence to such mercantile adventurers as were unwilling to depend on individual underwriters; still, however, leaving to merchants the option of insuring with such underwriters when they thought proper. To this end, the stat. 6 Geo. I. c. 18. authorized the king to grant charters to two distinct companies or corporations for the insurance of ships, goods, and merchandizes at sea, and for lending money on bottomry. They were to be invested with all the powers usually granted to

to corporations, and the privilege of purchasing lands to the amount of 1000 *l.* per annum. Each was to provide a sufficient capital, and a competent stock of ready money, to answer all demands on their policies. In pursuance of the powers given by this act, the two proposed companies, the one called the Royal Exchange Assurance, and the other, the London Assurance, were established by royal charter, bearing date the 22d day of June 1720.

But the most important privilege granted by this act to these companies was the exclusive right of making marine insurances, and lending money on bottomry, as a company or co-partnership, on a joint capital. For this purpose the act (sect. 12) declares that, during the continuance of these corporations respectively, all other corporations then in being, or afterwards to be established, whether sole or aggregate, and all societies and partnerships for insuring ships and merchandizes at sea, or going to sea, and for lending money on bottomry, shall be restrained from granting, signing, or underwriting, any policies of insurance upon any ships, goods, or merchandizes, at sea or going to sea, and from lending money on bottomry. And that if any corporation, or persons in partnership, (other than the said two companies,) shall presume to grant, sign, or underwrite any such policy, or make any such contract of insurance, every such policy shall be *ipso facto* void; and all sums, so signed and underwritten, shall be forfeited, one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, who shall sue for the same in any of the courts at Westminster. And if any such corporation or partnership, (other than the said two companies respectively,) shall lend, or agree to lend, any money on bottomry, the bond, or other security for the same, shall be void, and such agreement adjudged to be an usurious contract, and the offenders shall suffer as in cases of usury. Nevertheless it is declared, that any private or particular person or persons shall be at liberty to underwrite any policies, and engage in any insurances, upon ships, goods, or merchandizes, at sea, or going to sea, or may lend money on bottomry; so as the same be not upon account or risk of any corporation, company, or partnership. It has been decided that insurances may be legally made upon a joint capital, provided each subscriber to it be only liable to the amount of his subscription, and not each for the whole.

THINGS WHICH CAN BE INSURED. Insurances are most commonly made on goods and merchandize, ships, freight, and bottomry loans. But there are certain articles, which, from motives of public policy, cannot be legally insured in this country, and others which can only be insured under particular restrictions. They are, 1. Smuggled goods; 2. Prohibited commerce

with the British colonies; 3. Warlike stores sent to the enemy; 4. Goods bought of the enemy; 5. The wages and effects of the captain and sailors; 6. Freight; 7. Slaves; and 8. Profit.

THE VOYAGE. The voyage, with reference to the legality of it, is sometimes confounded with the *traffic* in which the ship is engaged; and is frequently said to be illegal, only because the trade is so. But a voyage may be perfectly lawful, and yet the transport of certain goods on board the ship may be prohibited; or the voyage may be illegal, though the transport of the goods be lawful. It may be laid down as a general rule that no insurance can legally be made upon any voyage made contrary to the laws of this kingdom, or to those of its dependencies, or to the law of nations; and it is immaterial whether the insurer was or was not informed, that the voyage was illegal.

RISKS. Insurances may be made against all the risks or perils which are incident to sea voyages, subject, however, to certain exceptions, founded in public policy, and the interests of humanity, which require, that in certain cases, men shall not be permitted to protect themselves against some particular perils by insurance. Upon principles of natural justice, the insurer can, in no case, make himself answerable for any loss or damage *proceeding directly from the fault of the insured*; because no man can bind himself to another to be answerable for that person's own faults. The words of an English policy, which specify the various risks against which insurances are usually made, are these: 'Touching the adventures and perils which
' we the assurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in
' this voyage, they are of the seas, men of war, fire, enemies,
' pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and counter-
' mart, surprizals, taking at sea, arrests, restraints and detain-
' ments of all kings, princes, and people, of what nation, con-
' dition or quality soever; barratry of the master and mari-
' ners; and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that
' have or shall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the
' said goods, and merchandizes, and ship, &c. or any part there-
' of, without prejudice to this insurance.'

EXCEPTIONS BY COMMON MEMORANDUM. By the agreement of the parties, the general words of the policy may be altered or qualified, and any of the risks may be wholly or in part excluded, and the insurance may be made only against some particular risks, or up to, or beyond certain degrees, or upon particular articles. In England, it is now constantly stipulated, that upon certain enumerated articles of a quality peculiarly perishable, the insurer shall not be answerable for any partial
loss;

loss; that, upon certain others, liable to partial injuries, but less difficult to be preserved at sea, he shall only be liable for partial losses above *five per cent.*; and that, as to all other goods, and also the ship and freight, he shall only be liable for partial losses above *three per cent.* This stipulation is made in form of a warranty inserted at the bottom of all English policies. In the common policies, used in London by private underwriters, the memorandum runs thus: ‘N.B. Corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seed, are warranted free from average, unless general, or the ship be stranded:—Sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, are warranted free from average, under *five per cent.*; and all other goods, and also the ship and freight, are warranted free from average, under *three per cent.* unless general, or the ship be stranded.’

DURATION OF RISK. To charge the insurer, it is not enough that a loss has happened at sea; it must appear to have happened in the course of the voyage, and during the continuance of the risk insured. Every voyage insured must have a *terminus à quo* and a *terminus ad quem*. When the insurance is for a limited time, the two extremes of that time are the *termini* of the voyage insured. When a ship is insured, both outward and homeward, for one entire premium; this, with reference to the insurance, is considered as but one voyage; and the *terminus à quo* is also the *terminus ad quem*. In our policies, the words usually employed to express the commencement and end of the risk *on goods* are these: “Beginning the adventure upon the said goods and merchandizes *from the loading thereof aboard the said ship*, and so shall continue and endure until the said ship with the said goods shall be arrived at her port of delivery, and until the same shall be discharged and safely landed.”—So that with us it is plain that the risk does not commence until the goods are actually on board the ship; and therefore the insurer is not answerable for any loss or damage which may happen to them, while they are on their passage to the ship. And it may be laid down as a general rule, with certain exceptions, that the risk on goods continues no longer than they are actually on board the ship mentioned in the policy; and that if they be removed from on board that ship, and landed, or put on board another ship, without the consent of the insurers, the contract is at an end, and the insurers are discharged from all subsequent responsibility. The commencement of the risk *on the ship* varies in almost every case. In outward bound voyages, it is generally made to commence from her beginning to load at her port of departure. Sometimes privateers on a cruise, ships engaged in the coasting trade; or in short voyages, are insured for a limited period of time, and, in such cases, the risk commences and ends with the term, where-

ever the ship may happen to be. If a ship be insured *from* the port of London to any other port, and before she breaks ground, an accident happen to her, the insurers are not answerable; for the risk does not commence till she sets sail on her departure from the port of London: but if the insurance be "*at and from*" the port of London, the insurers are liable for any accident that may happen to her, *from the time of subscribing the policy*. If, after the insurance is effected, any thing be done by the insured to alter the nature of the risk, this must be done with the consent of the insurers, otherwise it will avoid the contract: as, if, after a policy is effected on a merchant ship, letters of marque be put on board, and from a mere private trader she is changed into a ship of war, with power not only to defend herself, but also to cruize and take prizes; this is such an alteration of the condition of the ship, that the risk must be materially changed from that which the underwriter took upon himself, and consequently the contract is thereby determined.

WARRANTY. A warranty is a stipulation or agreement on the part of the insured, in nature of a condition precedent. It may be either *affirmative*, as where the insured undertakes for the truth of some positive allegation; as, that the thing insured is neutral property, that the ship is of such a force, that she sailed, or was well, on such a day, &c.: or, it may be *promissory*; as, where the insured undertakes to perform some executory stipulation, as, that a ship shall sail on or before a given day; that he shall depart with convoy; that he shall be manned with such a complement of men, &c. Warranties are either *express* or *implied*. An express warranty is a particular stipulation introduced into the written contract by the agreement of the parties; as, that the thing insured is neutral property; that the ship shall sail by a given day; that she shall depart with convoy, &c. An implied warranty is that which necessarily results from the nature of the contract; as, that the ship shall be sea-worthy when she sails on the voyage insured; that she shall be navigated with reasonable skill and care; that the voyage is lawful, and shall be performed according to law, and in the usual course, and without wilful deviation, &c. A warranty being in the nature of a condition precedent, and, therefore, to be performed by the insured before he can demand performance of the contract on the part of the insurer, it is quite immaterial for what purpose, or with what view, it is made; or, whether the insured had any view at all in making it: but, being once inserted in the policy, it becomes a binding condition on the insured; and unless he can shew that it has been literally fulfilled, he can derive no benefit from the policy.

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The very meaning of a warranty is, to preclude all question whether it has been substantially complied with or not. If it be affirmative, it must be literally true; if promissory, it must be strictly performed. The breach of a warranty, therefore, consists either in the falsehood of an affirmative, or the non-performance of an executory, stipulation. In either case, the contract is void *ab initio*, the warranty being a condition-precedent: and, whether the thing warranted was material or not, whether the breach of it proceeded from fraud, negligence, misinformation, or any other cause, the consequence is the same. The warranty makes the contract hypothetical; that is, it shall be binding, *if* the warranty be complied with. With respect to the compliance with warranties, there is no latitude, no equity: the only question is, has the thing warranted taken place or not? If it has not, the insurer is not answerable for any loss, even though it did not happen in consequence of the breach of the warranty.

REPRESENTATIONS. A representation, in insurance, is understood to mean a collateral statement, either by parol or in writing, of such facts or circumstances relative to the proposed adventure, and not inserted in the policy, as are necessary for the information of the insurer, to enable him to form a just estimate of the risk. Such representations are often the principal inducement to the contract, and afford the best ground upon which the premium can be calculated. A representation may be untrue, either wilfully and fraudulently; or inadvertently and innocently. A wilful misrepresentation, or *aligatio falsi*, is any fact or circumstance *material to the risk*, is a fraud that will always avoid the contract. And such misrepresentation so completely vitiates the policy, that the insured cannot recover upon it, even for a loss arising from a cause unconnected with the fact or circumstance misrepresented.

There is a material difference between a representation and a warranty. A warranty, being a condition upon which the contract is to take effect, is always a part of the written policy, and must appear on the face of it: whereas a representation is only matter of collateral information or intelligence on the subject of the voyage insured, and makes no part of the policy. A warranty, being in nature of a condition-precedent, must be *strictly and literally* complied with; but, it is sufficient, if a representation be true in *substance*. By a warranty, whether material to the risk or not, the insured stakes his claim of indemnity upon the precise truth of it, if it be affirmative; or upon the exact performance of it, if executory; but it is sufficient, if a representation be made without fraud, and be not false in any material point; or if it be *substantially*, though not *literally*, fulfilled.

CONCEALMENT. Concealment is nearly allied to misrepresentation, and consists in the fraudulent suppression of any fact or circumstance material to the risk. This, like every other fraud, avoids the contract *ab initio*, upon principles of natural justice. And it is not merely on the ground of *fraud* that a concealment avoids the contract: even a concealment which is only the effect of accident, negligence, inadvertence, or mistake, will be equally fatal to the contract, as if it were intentional and fraudulent. Nor can the insured, by tendering any increase of premium, require the insurer to confirm it; for the insurer has a right to say that he would not have subscribed the policy upon any terms, if he had not been deceived.

SEA-WORTHINESS. No loss occasioned by the internal defect of the thing insured can fall on the insurer; and, therefore, if the ship be found incapable of performing the voyage insured, and her inability do not proceed from any accident or misfortune, or from the violence of the winds or waves, but from latent defects, existing before the voyage commenced, the insurer is discharged. There is, moreover, in every insurance, whether on ship or goods, an implied warranty that the ship shall be sea-worthy when the risk commences; that is, that she shall be *tight, staunch, and strong, properly manned, provided with all necessary stores*, and in all respects fit for the intended voyage. The consideration of the insurance is paid, in order that the insured may be indemnified against certain contingencies; and it supposes that the insurer may gain the premium: but if the ship be incapable of performing the voyage, there is no possibility of the insurer's gaining the premium, and, in that case, the contract, on his part, would be without consideration, and, consequently, void. The insurer undertakes to indemnify the insured against the *extraordinary and unforeseen perils of the sea*, and it would be absurd to suppose, that any man would insure against those perils, but in the confidence that the ship is in a condition to encounter the *ordinary perils* to which every ship must be exposed in the usual course of the voyage proposed.

DEVIATION. By deviation is here meant a voluntary departure, without any necessity, from the usual course of the voyage insured. From the moment this happens, the voyage is changed, the contract is determined, and the insurer is discharged from all subsequent responsibility. By the terms of the contract, the insurer only runs the risk of the voyage agreed upon, and of no other; and it is therefore a condition necessarily implied in the policy, that the ship shall proceed by the shortest and safest course to her port of destination, and on no account to deviate from that course, but in cases of necessity. By the course of the voyage is not meant *the shortest possible way* from the port of departure

departure to the port of destination ; but the regular and customary track, if such there be, which long usage has proved to be the safest and most convenient. Therefore the stopping at certain places in the course of a voyage, though out of the direct line, is not a deviation, but a part of the voyage, if it has been the usual and settled practice to stop at those places ; for whatever is usually done, is presumed to be foreseen, and to be in the contemplation of the parties, and is therefore understood to be referred to by every policy, and to make a part of it as much as if it were expressed. The effect of a deviation is not to *vitate or avoid* the policy, but only to determine it from the time of the deviation, and to discharge the insurer from all subsequent responsibility. If, therefore, a ship, after her departure, receive damage, then deviate, and is afterwards lost, though the insurer is discharged from the time of the deviation, and is not answerable for the subsequent loss ; yet he is answerable for the damage received before the deviation ; but although he is thus discharged from subsequent responsibility, yet he is intitled to retain the whole premium. A person unacquainted with the nature of this contract, might, at first view, be tempted to think that if, after a deviation, the ship should resume her proper course, still being in good condition, and capable of performing the voyage, such a deviation ought not to alter the rights of the parties, or deprive the insured of the benefit of the policy.— But the answer is, that the condition implied in the contract, that the ship shall not deviate without necessity, being broken by the insured, the insurer is discharged. The proper course of the voyage being once interrupted cannot be resumed in the eye of the law. The contract being once dissolved, cannot be renewed without the consent of both parties ; and if a loss happen after a deviation, who can say that the ship would not have arrived safe, if she had pursued the usual course ? The shortness of the time, or of the distance, of a deviation, makes no difference as to its effect on the contract. Whether it be for one hour, or a month, or for one mile or one hundred, the consequence is the same. If it be voluntary, and without necessity, it puts an end to the responsibility of the insurer. The true reason why a deviation discharges the insurer is, not the increase of the risk, but, that the party contracting has voluntarily substituted another voyage for that which was insured. A deviation that will discharge the insurer, must be a voluntary departure from the usual course of the voyage insured, and not warranted by any necessity. If a deviation can be justified by necessity, the insurer will still remain liable. One general principle pervades all the cases on this point ; namely, that if the captain, in departing from the usual course of the voyage, acts

fairly and *bonâ fide*, and according to the best of his judgment, for the benefit of all parties concerned, and has no other view but to conduct the ship and cargo, by the safest and shortest course, to her port of destination; what he does is within the spirit of the contract, and the voyage will still be protected by it. It is no deviation to go out of the way to avoid danger.

Loss. Every loss is either total or partial. The term *total loss* is understood in two different senses; natural and legal. In its natural sense, it signifies the absolute destruction of the thing insured. In its legal sense, it means not only the total destruction, but likewise such damage to the thing insured, though it may specifically remain, as renders it of little or no value to the owner. So a loss is said to be total, if, in consequence of the misfortune that has happened, the voyage be lost, or not worth pursuing, and the projected adventure frustrated; or if the value of what is saved be less than the freight, &c. A *partial loss* is any loss or damage short of, or not amounting to, a total loss; for if it be not the latter, it must be the former. Losses are, 1st, By perils of the sea; 2^d, By running foul of another vessel; 3^d, By fire; 4th, By capture; 5th, By arrest and detention of princes; 6th, By barratry; 7th, By average contributions; 8th, By expense of salvage; and 9th, Wilful or fraudulent. Of these subjects some explain themselves sufficiently for this work, and others have already been noticed; one head however requires elucidation.

BARRATRY. Barratry, (which is derived from the Italian verb *barratrare*, to cheat) may be defined to be, any species of fraud, knavery, deceit or cheating, committed by the master or mariners, whereby the owners sustain an injury: As by running away with the ship, wilfully carrying her out of the course of the voyage prescribed by the owners, sinking or deserting her, embezzling the cargo, smuggling or any other offence, whereby the ship or cargo may be subjected to arrest, detention, loss, or forfeiture: Barratry, in short, comprehends every fraud that may be committed by the master or mariners against the owners.

ABANDONMENT. It has already been observed that the term *total loss* does not only signify the absolute destruction of the thing insured, but also such a loss or damage as renders it of little or no value to the owner, or any loss or misfortune whereby the voyage is lost, or becomes not worth pursuing, and the projected adventure frustrated. In such cases the insured is intitled to call upon the insurer as for a total loss: but then he must *abandon*; that is, he must renounce and yield up to the insurer all his right, title, and claim to what may be saved, and leave it to him to make the most of it for his own benefit.

fit. The insurer then stands in the place of the insured, and becomes legally intitled to all that can be rescued from destruction. In England we have no positive regulation, nor any time limited by law for abandoning. The rule established by the courts is, that as soon as the insured receives advice of a total loss, he must make his election whether he will abandon or not: If he determines to abandon, he must give the underwriters notice of this *within a reasonable time*, after the intelligence arrives; and any unnecessary delay in giving this notice will amount to a waiver of his right to abandon; for unless the owner does some act, signifying his intention to abandon, it will be only a partial loss, whatever may be the nature of the case, or the extent of the damage. This rule, which has been long established, is analogous to the general principle of the common law, which requires that all notices of acts affecting the interests of third persons shall be given *within a reasonable time*.

Many other points remain to be considered in relation to insurances, as the adjustment of losses, the return of premiums in certain cases, and the proceedings at law for recovery of the sums secured by the policy; but these are in their nature so technical, that it would be impossible to abridge them with advantage; the reader is therefore referred to the works from which the preceding information has been derived; those of Mr. Park, and Mr. Serjeant Marshall.

EXCHANGE. Among the circumstances of most importance to be considered in foreign trade, is that of exchange. The relative abundance and scarcity of specie in different countries, forms what is called the *course of exchange*, which is the fixing of the actual and momentary value of money. The relative possession of, and demand for specie between nation and nation are never fixed, and consequently the rate of exchange fluctuates, according to the wants of merchants, or the effect of their speculations. When the exchange between two places, such as London and Paris, is at par, it is said to be a sign that the debts due from London to Paris are compensated by those due from Paris to London. On the contrary, when a premium is paid at London for a bill upon Paris, it is said to be a sign that the debts due from London to Paris are not compensated by those due from Paris to London, but that a balance in money must be sent out from the latter place; for the risk, trouble, and expense of exporting which, the premium is both demanded and given. But the ordinary state of debt and credit between those two cities must necessarily be regulated, it is said, by the ordinary course of their dealings with one another. When neither of them imports from the other to a greater amount

amount than it exports to that other, the debts and credits of each may compensate one another ; but when one of them imports from the other to a greater value than it exports to that other, the former necessarily becomes indebted to it : the debts and credits of each do not compensate one another, and money must be sent out from that place of which the debts overbalance the credits. The ordinary course of exchange, therefore, being an indication of the ordinary state of debt and credit between two places, must likewise be an indication of the ordinary course of their exports and imports, as these necessarily regulate that state. The consideration of this subject would lead to that of Bills of Exchange, but some observations on them and on promissory notes will be found in a following page.

ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGE. The various and intricate problems arising out of the various exchanges adopted in different countries, are referred to a system in mercantile accounts, called the arbitration of exchange. This the commercial writers say, is the most beneficial, as well as the most delicate, branch of exchange to be thoroughly informed of. Before any one applies himself to the study of this subject, it is necessary that he should be well skilled in all the practical operations, in regard to the reducing of the sterling money of England into the foreign monies of exchange, and of account, of all places throughout Europe, according to the direct courses of exchange, established for these purposes, and *vice versa*. Also, that he should be acquainted with the method of converting sterling money into the monies of exchange, and of account, of all other places of commerce, wherewith England has no direct established courses of exchange, but is under the necessity of making use of the intermediate exchange of other places : together with the nature of the agios, and the manner of converting their bank monies into current, and the reverse ; and the manner of calculating all the foreign monies throughout Europe into those of every other distinct country, either according to the direct, or intermediate exchange, which makes a much greater variety of cases than those who are not thoroughly acquainted with this extensive subject can imagine. It is previously necessary, also, to the entering upon a knowledge of the arbitration of exchange, to know the intrinsic value of foreign monies, according to the most accurate assays which have been made for that purpose. Lastly, it is requisite to understand the general natural causes of the rise and fall of the courses of exchange between nation and nation, or between one trading city and another in the same nation.

BALANCE OF TRADE. That which is commonly meant by the balance of trade, is the equal importing of the foreign commodities,

dities, with the exporting the native. And it is reckoned that nation has the advantage in the balance of trade, that exports more of the native commodities, and imports less of the foreign. The reason of this is, that, if the native commodities be of a greater value than are exported, the balance of that account must be made up in bullion or money; and the nation grows so much richer as the balance of that account amounts to.

COMPANIES. Many of the most important and extensive classes of British commerce have been, and some still are, carried on by means of chartered companies. The most distinguished of these, the East India Company, will claim notice in another division of the work; of some others an account is now given.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY. Of the origin of this company, and of its most celebrated transaction, the following account is extracted from Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. The South Sea Company owed its origin to a chimerical project, formed by Harley in 1711, for the purpose of restoring the public credit which had been greatly affected by the dismissal of the Whig ministry, and of establishing a fund for the discharge of the navy and army debentures, and the other parts of the floating debt, which amounted to 9,471,325 *l.*; and was afterwards increased to 10,000,000 *l.* With a view to settle a fund for paying the interest of 6 per cent. on these arrears, which amounted to the annual sum of 568,279 *l.* all the duties upon wines, vinegar, tobacco, India goods, wrought silks, whale fins, and a few other duties were rendered permanent. In order to allure the creditors with the hopes of advantages from a new commerce, the monopoly of a trade to the South Sea, or coast of Spanish America, was granted to a company composed of the several proprietors of this funded debt, which being incorporated by act of parliament, took the appellation of the South Sea Company. The great advantages to be derived from this commerce had been held forth and exaggerated from the time of our first voyages to Spanish America, in the reign of Elizabeth, and had been still further increased by the reports of the buccaneers. The considerable riches which France had brought from America, since the establishment of Philip V. on the throne of Spain, had contributed to raise the sanguine expectations of the British merchants; a rumour industriously circulated, that four ports on the coasts of Peru and Chili, were to be ceded by Spain, inflamed the general ardour; the prospect of exchanging gold, silver, and rich drugs for the manufactures of England, were plausible allurements for an enterprising and commercial nation; and the mines of Potosi and Mexico were to diffuse their inexhaustible stores through the medium of the new company.

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The famous act of parliament, which incorporated the subscribers of the debts, under the name of the governor and company of merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas and other parts of the country, was called the earl of Oxford's master-piece, and considered by his panegyrists as the sure means of bringing an inexhaustible mine of riches into England. But in fact this scheme was settled on a false foundation; for by the peace of Utrecht, Spain and the Indies being confirmed to Philip V. that monarch was too jealous to admit the English to a free trade in the South Sea, and instead of the advantageous commerce which Oxford had held forth, the company obtained only the *asiento* contract, or the privilege of supplying the Spanish colonies with negroes for thirty years, with the permission of sending to Spanish America an annual ship, limited both as to tonnage and value of cargo, of the profits of which the king of Spain reserved one fourth, and five *per cent.* on the other three fourths. But this disappointment was attempted to be counteracted by the declaration made by Oxford, that Spain had permitted two ships, in addition to the annual ship, to carry merchandize during the first year to the northern coasts of Spanish America, and a pompous nomination of the several ports where the company had leave to trade, and to settle factories. But the grand benefits of this commerce were never realized. The first voyage of the annual ship was not made till 1717, and in the following year, the trade was suppressed by the rupture with Spain. Their effects, factories and servants were seized and detained, notwithstanding the agreement in the *asiento*, which allowed, in case of a rupture, eighteen months for the removal of their effects.

Such was the state of the South Sea Company, when in 1720 the ministry, instead of attempting to lessen the national incumbrances, by the only just and successful means, a clear and inviolable sinking fund, adopted the visionary schemes of projectors, and gave to the South Sea Company the power of fascinating the minds of the public, and spreading an infatuation similar to that which had recently involved France in a national bankruptcy. The grand point which government had in view, was the reduction of the irredeemable annuities, created in the reigns of William and Anne, for a period of 89, 96, and 99 years, amounting nearly to 800,000*l.* per annum, as no effectual measures could be adopted to lessen the public debts, whilst these annuities remained irredeemable.

In order to effect this liquidation, the minister accepted proposals from the South Sea Company for reducing the debts to a redeemable state: as the object of the ministers, who had previously and secretly arranged the scheme with the directors, was
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to surprise the House of Commons into the measure of granting this extensive privilege to the South Sea Company, and of preventing competition, they entertained the most sanguine hopes of success, from the specious advantages which they held forth to the public as the necessary consequences. They accordingly laid the business before a committee of the House of Commons. After several debates it was adopted. The general phrenzy in favour of this project soon rose to an enormous height. The compensation to the South Sea Company, for the immediate payment of the 7,567,500*l.* seemingly for no value received, was to be drawn from the profits of their scheme. These profits were to arise from, 1st. The exclusive advantages of the trade, which, although precarious, and depending on a peace with Spain, were stated at no less than 200,000*l.* a year. 2^d. The allowance for the charge of management, which was to be proportioned to the augmentation of their stock. 3^d. The difference of receiving 5 *per cent.* for the money expended in purchasing the public debts, when the usual interest was only 4 *per cent.* 4th. The great addition to their wealth, from the constant rise of the price of the stock in consequence of the artifices used to enhance its value; on which the whole success of the scheme depended.

The company could not fulfil its engagements with government, and pay so large a sum as between seven and eight millions, without taking advantage of the general infatuation, and availing themselves of that spirit of pecuniary enterprise which had seized the public mind. Imaginary advantages were accordingly held forth; groundless and mysterious reports were circulated concerning valuable acquisitions in the South Sea, and hidden treasures; dividends of ten, thirty, and even fifty *per cent.* were voted, which the directors knew could never be paid, and for which there was no foundation.

The promoters of the scheme highly exaggerated the profits; rumours were at the same time spread, that the company by monopolizing the fund of the whole national debt, would reduce government to the necessity of applying to them for loans, which would be advanced on their own terms; and it was even insinuated, the proprietors would obtain, by the weight of their wealth, a majority in the house of commons, and make and depose ministers. The public being intoxicated with these ideas, the stock, which at the close of the books at Christmas, 1719, was only at 126, rose, at the opening of the first subscription, on the 14th of April, to above 300*l.* the market price being on that day 325: in other words, the creditors of the nation made over a debt of 100 for 33½ in South Sea stock. As the phrenzy spread, and the desire of making

rapid fortunes became contagious, the stock successively rose to above 1,000 *per cent.* at which price the books were opened for the fourth subscription on the 24th of August, and this subscription, though the market price of the established stock was below 800*l.* was sold the same day for a premium of 30 and 40 *per cent.*

The sanguine cupidity, which marked this speculation, was not confined to the South Sea scheme: the whole nation became stock jobbers and projectors; every day produced new proposals*, some of apparent importance and utility, others so absurd and futile, that their success was matter of surprise, and almost exceeds credibility. So prevalent was this rage, amongst persons even of the highest rank, that the Prince of Wales was induced to become governor of the copper company. In vain Walpole and Compton endeavoured to dissuade him from this act of degradation, by representing, that he subjected himself to a prosecution, that he would be reviled in parliament, and that the *Prince of Wales's bubble* would be hawked about in 'Change-alley. Their remonstrances had no effect, the prince became governor, but afterwards on receiving notice that a prosecution would be commenced against the company, withdrew his name, with a gain of 40,000*l.*

These delusive projects received their first check from the power to which they owed their birth: the directors of the South Sea Company, jealous of their success, and desirous to monopolize all the money of the speculators, obtained writs of *scire facias* against the conductors of bubbles, and thus put an end to them. But in opening the eyes of the deluded multitude, they took away the main prop of their own tottering edifice. Suspicion once excited was not to be suppressed, and the public no longer amused by pompous declarations and promises of dividends, which they were convinced could never be realized, declined all farther purchases of stock, which fell in less than three weeks to 400, and those who had bought at large premiums were involved in distress and ruin. Amongst the numbers who suffered by these speculations, were not only persons of the first rank, but merchants and traders of every class, and bankers, who having advanced the monies committed to

* The reader will find nearly two hundred of these bubbles enumerated in Anderson's History of Commerce, vol. iii. p. 103. Amongst the most absurd may be mentioned, projects for transmuting quick-silver into malleable and fine metal. For importing a number of large jack-asses from Spain, in order to propagate a large breed of mules; and for trading in human hair. But the most impudent and bare-faced delusion, was that of a man who advertised that upon payment of two guineas, the subscribers should be intitled to a hundred pound share, in a project which would be disclosed in a month. The extreme folly of the public was such, that he received a thousand of these subscriptions in one day and then went off.

to them, on the subscription receipts, by their temporary stoppages augmented the general calamity.

When the public distress was arrived to a most alarming height, and despair pervaded all ranks of people, to Walpole every eye was directed, as the only person capable of affording assistance, under the pressure of immediate necessity. When the aid of the bank became necessary to preserve the South Sea Company from ruin, he was called from the country, and importuned to use his interest with the governors, to persuade them to accept a proposal made by the South Sea Company, to circulate a number of their bonds. At this awful moment the clamour of distress was irresistible, and the bank after great reluctance, arising from a natural dread of being involved in the same ruin which threatened the South Sea Company, was at length induced to listen to the proposals. Walpole was present at several conferences between the committees of the two companies, and drew up in the first conference, a minute well known afterwards by the name of the Bank contract, specifying the agreement of the Bank, to circulate three millions of South Sea bonds for one year, on certain conditions, which were specified at a subsequent meeting. The report of his interference, and the intended aid to be given by the bank, occasioned a temporary rise in the South Sea stock, but the public was in such a state of terror and agitation, and so desperate was the situation of the South Sea Company, that any community of interests between the two companies was considered as fatal to both. In consequence of this notion, such a demand was made on the bank, that the governors refused to abide by the terms of their agreement; alleging that it was deficient in legal validity.

The critical state of the nation having rendered the immediate presence of the king necessary, he hastily quitted his German dominions, and landed at Margate on the 9th of November. But his presence had not the desired effect. South Sea stock, which at the king's arrival was at 210, fell in a few days to 135. The public now looked with anxious expectation for the assembling of parliament, which was to meet on the 25th of November; yet such were the difficulties under which the ministry laboured to form a proper scheme for remedying the national distress, which daily increased, that it was farther prorogued to the 8th of December.

Nor is it a matter of wonder that the ministry were alarmed, and uncertain what measures to pursue. England had never experienced so total a destruction of credit, never was any country in so violent a paroxysm of despondency and terror. The South Sea Company was considered as the sole cause of
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all the national misfortunes; the directors were indiscriminately loaded with execrations, and devoted by the public voice to condign punishment. Those who had promoted the scheme were involved in the same general detestation. The king, in addition to the odium of being a foreigner, and governed by foreign counsels, and increasing his own dominions in Germany, at the expense of England, was now most virulently reviled for having favoured the South Sea Act. Well founded suspicions were formed, that his German ministers and mistresses had received enormous largesses in stock to recommend and promote the project. Most of the principal ministers of the English cabinet, Townshend excepted, were accused of being implicated in the same scandalous traffic, either by themselves or their relations, and had totally forfeited the public opinion. A general outcry prevailed, that the king and ministers had leagued with the South Sea Company to dupe the nation, and that the remedy for these enormous evils would be more dangerous than the disorder itself.

The public discontents were increased to so great a height, that some of his Hanoverian counsellors suggested the rashest measures. They advised the king to affect a resignation of the crown to the Prince of Wales, and insinuated, that William, his great predecessor, had surmounted the factions of the times by threatening to retire, and leave the country to its fate. As a last and desperate effort, he was recommended to apply to the army to sound the officers, many of whom, it was said, had declared, that rather than submit to the establishment of a commonwealth, or a popish competitor, they would assist to render the king absolute. Others were alarmed, and dreaded a misunderstanding between the king and the parliament; deprecated any attempt to apply to the army, opposed the resignation of the crown, by insinuating, that it was not the first time, that a king of England had ruined himself by retiring, with the hope of quelling the fury of the populace; advised rather, that secret applications should be made to the Emperor and the other allies for troops, if necessary, to defend his person against any rebellious attempts.

In this alarming crisis, the king was pensive and desponding, uncertain how to act, and by whom to be directed.

Fortunately, in this moment of suspense and agitation, the public voice called forth Walpole, as the only man calculated to save the nation from impending destruction. In conjunction with Townshend, he stood at the head of a large party, highly respected for their *tried* integrity; among whom the names of Cavendish and Russell were most conspicuous, who had uniformly acted with him; while the dukes of Newcastle, Bolton, Grafton,

Grafton, and many other whigs who had united with Sunderland, were now ready to join his standard. He was attached to government by the office of paymaster to the forces; but as he had scarcely taken any part in public transactions, he did not share with administration the general odium. He had gained great popularity by his uniform opposition to the South Sea Act, and by having predicted the evils which were now most severely felt.

The moment in which it was publicly known that Walpole, in conjunction with Townshend, was employed on a scheme for the restoration of public credit, a new spirit and resolution seemed to be infused into the nation. The country revived from its late despondency; and his ability for finance was so thoroughly appreciated, that a proposal which he made to the minister on the 19th of November, being agreed to, had such an instantaneous effect, as again to raise the stock from 125 to 200. On the meeting of parliament, Walpole, after surmounting many difficulties, carried a proposition to engraft nine millions of stock into the bank of England, and the same sum into the East India company, on certain conditions, leaving twenty millions to the South Sea company. The proceedings taken against the directors were extremely severe. A secret committee was appointed; the cashier of the company having escaped with their most important register, four members were expelled the house and taken into custody. The other directors shared the same fate; all their books, papers, and effects were seized, and the royal assent was given to a bill, for restraining them from leaving the kingdom, discovering their estates, and disqualifying them for holding offices in any of the companies. Finally, a bill was brought in for the relief of the sufferers by the South Sea company, the title of which, on the third reading, was changed into a bill for raising money on the estates of the sub and deputy governors, directors, cashier, deputy cashier, and accountant of the South Sea company, and of Mr. Aislaby and Mr. Craggs, towards making good the damages sustained by the company, and for disabling such of those persons as were living, to hold any place, or sit in parliament for the future. In consequence of these resolutions, the greater part of the estates belonging to the directors, and other persons mentioned therein, were confiscated to a very large amount, and applied towards discharging the debts of the company. The estates of the directors alone were valued at 2,014,123 *l.*, the allowance made to them was 354,600 *l.*, the confiscation, therefore, amounted to 1,659,523 *l.* Yet these enormous forfeitures did not satisfy the unrelenting advocates for extreme severity, many of whom expected nothing less than confiscation of

all their property, and several were dissatisfied because the punishment of death was not inflicted. An eminent historian has justly remarked, that "the equity of modern times must condemn the arbitrary proceedings which disgraced the cause of justice, by introducing a bill of pains and penalties, a retro-active statute, to punish offences which did not exist when they were committed." "Against a bill of pains and penalties," he observes, "it is the common right of every subject to be heard by his council at the bar; they prayed to be heard, their prayer was refused; and their oppressors, who required no evidence, would listen to no defence."

From this period, by a progress which it is not necessary to trace, the South Sea company has been reduced to one of little importance. For a time it received some benefits of the Asiento, traded in slaves, and employed ships in the whale fishery; but now its operations are limited to the management of the stock mentioned in Vol. II. p. 99. The company is under the control of a governor, who is the king, a sub and deputy governor, and twenty-one directors, assisted by cashiers, secretaries and other officers. The business is transacted in a spacious and handsome building in Threadneedle-street, called the South Sea House.

WHALE FISHERY. The whale fishery has been mentioned as one of the modes in which the South Sea company employed a portion of their funds. This was in 1725, but before that time the English nation, rivalling the Dutch, had sent ships to Greenland for whales, and in 1693, a company was established in London for the prosecution of this trade. In a few years, the fishing company utterly failed, and the attempt of the South Sea company was not more prosperous; but the trade being open, individuals continued to follow it, and generally with good success, government having seconded their efforts by exemptions from duty, and by bounties. Beside that to Greenland, there is a southern whale fishery, carried on in the American seas, and similarly encouraged, which is also very productive.

RUSSIA COMPANY. The trade between Great Britain and Russia owes its origin to the following circumstance. In 1553, some merchants of London, together with several noblemen, emulous of the fame, and desirous of sharing in the profits acquired by the Portuguese and Spanish discoverers of unknown lands, established a company, with a capital of 6000*l.* in 240 shares of 25*l.* for prosecuting discoveries. The celebrated Sebastian Cabot, who was a principal adviser of the undertaking, was chosen their governor. Three vessels were fitted out under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, and they carried letters from

from Edward VI. addressed to all kings and princes, requesting their friendship. Sir Hugh Willoughby, being tossed about a long time by tempestuous weather, as far as 72 degrees of north latitude, was compelled by the sudden approach of winter, to run into an obscure harbour in Russian Lapland, called Arcina Keca, where he and the crews of two of his ships (70 in number) were frozen to death; and where some Russian fishermen, in the summer following, found him sitting in his cabin, with his diary and other papers before him; it being the custom of those Laplanders to frequent the sea coasts in summer for the benefit of the fishery; but when winter approaches, to withdraw into the calmer inland parts, which occasions those stormy shores to be desolate in winter. Richard Chancellor, however, in the third ship, accidentally fell into the Bay of St. Nicholas, or the White Sea, on the Russian coast, and where no ship had ever been seen before, and landed at the Abbey of St. Nicholas, near Archangel, then only a castle, determining to wait on the czar, John Bazilowitz. Being at that time engaged in the Livonian war, which had greatly interrupted the Eastland trade, that prince was the more inclinable, by Chancellor's interposition, to grant the English considerable privileges at Archangel and other ports. The Russians, before those times, having no sea ports nor shipping on the Baltic shores, their rich furs, hemp, and other commodities, were carried to other parts of Europe from the ports of Livonia, lately possessed by the Teutonic knights of St. Mary of Jerusalem. Thus, though disappointed in his hopes of arriving at China by this supposed northeast passage, Chancellor made an useful and profitable discovery of a trade by sea to Russia; and this discovery, moreover, pointed out to the English the way to the whale fishery at Spitzbergen. From Archangel, by the governor's leave and assistance, Chancellor travelled on sledges to the czar at Moscow, of whom he obtained privileges for the English merchants, and letters to king Edward. It is here to be remarked, that although Ochter had almost 700 years before justly delineated the coast of Norway to the Great king Alfred, yet, through the negligence and ignorance of after-times, the knowledge of it was so utterly lost, that the famous Sebastian Munster's *Geographia vetus et nova*, printed in folio at Basil 1540, in a map of the most northern parts of Europe, joins the country of Groneland, commonly called old Greenland, (now known to be a part of the great continent of North America) to the north part of Norwegian Lapland, thereby making the northern ocean merely a great Bay, entirely shut in by those two countries.

King Edward was most happy to encourage the commerce of which a new way was thus opened; but as he died before he had

executed a very ample charter to those adventurers, it was in the first and second year of Philip and Mary, (6th of February,) that the first charter of incorporation was granted to the Russia Company (as it has since been usually called), but then by the name of the Merchants Adventurers, for the discovery of lands, countries, isles, &c. not before known or frequented by any English. The preamble to this charter, and the substance of the whole it sets forth is, that the Marquis of Winchester, then lord high treasurer; the earl of Arundel, lord steward of the Queen's household; the earl of Bedford, lord privy seal; the earl of Pembroke; the lord Howard of Effingham, lord high admiral, &c. having already fitted out ships for the discovery of countries northward, north-eastward, and north-westward, not as yet frequented by other Christian monarchs in friendship with England. To have one governor (the first to be Sebastian Cabot, during his life) and twenty-eight of the most sad (sedate), discreet, and honest of the said fellowships, four of whom to be called consuls, and the other twenty-four to be called assistants: The governor and two consuls (or three consuls in the governor's absence) and twelve assistants to be the quorum of a court. This corporation might purchase lands to the yearly value of 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, have perpetual succession; and a common seal; may plead and be impleaded; may impose mulcts, forfeitures, &c. on offenders against their privileges, and may admit persons from time to time to be free of the company and may make conquests of lands of infidels so to be discovered by them. "And whereas one of the said ships (Chancellor's) set forth last year (1553), arrived safe and wintered in the dominions of our cousin and brother Lord John Basilowitz, emperor of all Russia, who entertained them honorably, &c. and granted them letters to us, with licence to traffic freely in his country, with other privileges under his signet: Wherefore we grant this corporation liberty to resort, not only to all parts of that emperor's dominions, but to all other parts not known to our subjects, none of whom, but such as shall be free of or licensed by this company, shall frequent the parts aforesaid, under forfeiture of ships and merchandize, one half to the crown, one half to the company." It seems the Bristol merchants had entered into the Russia trade soon after its discovery, being encouraged therein by Sir Sebastian Cabot.

The fortunes of this company were chequered with success and disaster. Sometimes protected by great privileges, they enjoyed almost a monopoly of Russian commerce, and derived from it great profits; at others, they were obliged to contend with rivals for superiority, and to try other branches of trade
and

and fishery to maintain their establishments. The company still continues according to the original charter, but by a stat. 10 and 11 William, c. 6, every subject may be admitted to its fellowship, on paying 5*l.* Each member pays an additional guinea to the poor box; 5*s.* to the secretary, and 2*s.* 6*d.* to the headle of the company, besides stamps; also a small rate fixed by the company, on all goods imported into England only, from Archangel, Onega, Petersburg and Narva. On this trade, after giving very ample details, Mr. Oddy makes the following observations. In taking a general view of the trade of Russia, we cannot help observing how amazingly advantageous its trade is with the British dominions. Not only the amount of the sales is equal nearly to those of all other nations, but it is from Britain only that Russia receives a balance in cash. Were the trade suspended, the importation of wines, brandies, and foreign produce and manufactures, from other countries, would totally absorb the monied capital of Russia; and it is not going too far to say, that such an event would do it more harm than any other that could take place. Russia can only grow wealthy by internal industry, and its connection with other nations; but those two things are dependent upon each other. The introduction of foreign goods stimulates the people to industry; but they could not be introduced in half the quantity they now are, if it were not for Britain. In the relation between nations, we are always obliged to state values nominally, but the reader should keep in mind that the nominal is not the real value, as compared with that in another country. In the case of Russia, money is certainly of three times the value that it is in England; so that tallow, iron, timber, &c. produced by Russia, are sold at an immense price: when they receive 60*s.* a cwt. for tallow, it is as if we were receiving 9*l.* and so of other produce. While the Russians can produce things so cheap, and sell them so dear, they must be increasing in wealth; and it is not improbable that, as they certainly could afford to sell much cheaper than they do, as they increase in industry and capital, they will reduce their prices. The great rise of the prices of Russia produce, that has taken place of late years, has arisen from the demand increasing faster than the production; but this will cease, and the Russians, in order to obtain a more extensive market, will be obliged to reduce their prices. This they will naturally do in the same way with other nations; that is, they will come down to such a price as will merely afford a fair profit. We cannot so well judge of productions in any thing else as in iron, the value of which is regulated by the price of fuel and the wages of labour; yet, though both are three times as high, or more, we can produce iron here cheaper, than we

can import it from Russia. Though it is easy to see that many mistakes are committed by the Russian government in its endeavours to forward commerce, yet those endeavours are incessant, and have already produced great effects; its immense extent, the line of politics that has been followed, and the opening of ports on the Black Sea, will tend to civilize the interior of the country, which, together with the canals that are carrying on, must in a few years produce great changes. When we look at the past, we may anticipate the future. The rise of Petersburg, the general increase of commerce, and the vast augmentation of power; the rapid rise of Odessa, and the numerous efforts made to hasten the progress towards prosperity, leave no doubt as to the important part that nation will soon act on the theatre of Europe.

EASTLAND COMPANY. In various periods of time, the merchants of England had charters from the crown for regulating their commerce into the east country, a name of old, and still, given by mercantile people to the ports of the Baltic sea, but more especially in Prussia and Livonia. In 1579, Queen Elizabeth, agreeable to the genius of the age, granted them a charter, exclusive of all who should not take up their freedom in their company, by the name of the Fellowship of Eastland Merchants. Their privileges were, 'to enjoy the sole trade through the Sound, ' into Norway, Sweden, Poland, Lithuania, excepting Narva, ' (which was within the Russia company's charter,) Prussia, and ' also Pomerania, from the river Oder eastward, Dantzic, Elbing, and Koningberg; also to Copenhagen and Elsinore, ' and to Finland, (here called an isle,) Gothland, Bornholm, ' and Oeland; to have a governor, deputy or deputies, and ' twenty-four assistants, who may make bye-laws, and impose ' fines, imprisonments, &c. on all non-freemen trading to those ' parts.' It was principally designed by the Queen for the encouragement of her own merchants, in opposition to the Hanseatics. This is what is called in England a *regulated company*, *i. e.* a company trading, not on a joint stock, but every one on his separate bottom, under certain regulations. This charter was farther confirmed by one from Charles I. in 1629; but the company have been frequently complained of by the English merchants, and were therefore curtailed by legal authority in 1672. And finally, being, with all other monopolizing companies, (not confirmed by parliament,) deemed illegal in times of true liberty, after the revolution, in consequence of the act called the declaration of rights, they do not now exist commercially, or otherwise, but in name only, which they still keep up, by continuing to elect their annual officers; and having (like the merchants of the staple, another company in similar circumstances) a little
stock

stock in the public funds. The interest defrays the expenses of their yearly meetings, which are for no end but to commemorate their former existence.

TURKEY COMPANY. The commerce between Great Britain and Turkey began in the sixteenth century, when the Ottoman power was at its most formidable height. In 1581, the London Turkey Company had its charter granted, and sprang from a decayed company of merchants trading to Barbary; it was once a joint stock company, and has been some time, as it now is, a regulated company, having its own, and bye-laws, which are contained in one hundred and thirty-eight articles. The admission into this company is by application to the governor, deputy-governor, treasurer or secretary, paying twenty pounds, taking the oaths prescribed; and conforming to its bye-laws and regulations. The company consists of a governor, a deputy, a treasurer, and a court of assistants, eighteen in number. From them are formed two committees called government and quarantine committees. This company, which is also called the Levant Company, has a house in little St. Helen's, Bishopsgate-street.

There is a British consul general at Constantinople, entirely for commercial purposes; and there are consuls at Smyrna, Salonica, Alexandria and Aleppo; vice consuls at Patras, Scio, and the Dardanelles, and an agent at Cyprus, who are appointed by the Levant company, or by their recommendation. An act passed in 1780, allowing the Irish the same privileges as the British merchants in this trade, so that it is open to all British subjects becoming members of this company; and, that every one trading there should become such is good policy; for some discoveries, leading to such a regulation, were made, arising from French products and manufactures being imported into Turkey, under the former British privileges. An act was passed, in 1753, for regulating the company, and authorizing them to make bye-laws. The French account of the British Levant trade, given in 1787, is interesting; and, to this day, they view it with a most envious and wishful eye. According to the fluctuating politics of Divan, and the ascendancy or failure of French intrigue, the British commerce with Turkey has been more or less extensive and flourishing. That it may be productive of great and permanent national advantage is indisputable, that under such circumstances it ever will, is much to be doubted.

Some other companies established for the prosecution of foreign trade will be mentioned in other divisions of the work; as the African, the Sierra Leone, and the Hudson's Bay companies.

HOME TRADE.

In this division will be reviewed the internal commerce, comprising the principal manufactures and produce of the country, with observations on many regulations and circumstances, from which are derived facility and security to those engaged in trade, and those who have transactions with them.

Many reasons may be assigned for the prevailing error by which persons speculating on the nature of commerce are induced to consider foreign as of far superior importance to home trade.

The illusions created by theories drawn from the balance of commerce, the desire to render profit more acceptable by representing it as gained at the expense of some political opponent, and above all, the inclination prevalent in the human mind to estimate most highly that which seems to be produced with the greatest labour and risque, and to undervalue the acquisitions which are copious, constant and silent, when compared with those which present to the mind ideas of enterprise, danger and achievement; all these motives concur with many others in giving rise to calculations so erroneous. That the foreign trade of Great Britain is attended with immense advantages cannot be doubted; and that portion of it which arises from colonies is also of the highest value; but these together cannot be put in competition with the home trade, including the internal and coasting navigation, which constitute the real riches and strength of the empire, and which may yet be extended to a degree far exceeding its present amount. On the absurdity of expecting greater advantages from foreign or colonial, than from domestic commerce, Lord Sheffield made the following observations, at the time when that peace was concluded which bereft the British nation of the sovereignty of America; an event which many persons, less enlightened than his lordship, considered as the forerunner of England's ruin;

“ Had America been settled by any other nation, it is more
 “ than probable that Great Britain had been more populous
 “ and powerful; that her taxes had been much lighter, and
 “ her debt much less. Had the emigrants been retained at
 “ home, whose progeny now (1784) form a people of nearly
 “ two millions, in a climate no ways superior, and in most
 “ parts inferior, to that of Britain and Ireland: had the
 “ lands at home, which still continue waste, been given them
 “ on condition of cultivation, and bounties been added to
 “ encourage new products of agriculture; had they been
 “ planted on the banks of our rivers and our bays with a view
 “ to

“ to fisheries ; they would have increased the people and aug-
 “ mented the opulence of Great Britain, in the same propor-
 “ tion as the colonists have for many years formed a balance to
 “ our population, and to our power. Nothing can be more
 “ impolitic, at least in a commercial nation, than a fondness
 “ for foreign dominions, and a propensity to encourage distant
 “ colonization, rather than promote domestic industry and po-
 “ pulation at home. *The internal trade of Great Britain is much*
 “ *greater than its external commerce. The best customers of the ma-*
 “ *nufacturers of Britain are the people of Britain.* Every emi-
 “ grant consequently, from being the best customer, becomes
 “ the worst ; and from being a soldier or sailor, who may be
 “ brought forward on the day of danger, ceases to be of any
 “ service to the state in any shape. Let considerations of ad-
 “ vantage and protection hereafter go hand in hand together.
 “ In most cases the expense of protection and civil government
 “ is much greater than the prevention of competition is worth ;
 “ a prevention which is very seldom complete. The superior
 “ state of British manufactures in general does not require
 “ other means of monopoly than what their superiority and
 “ cheapness will give. If we have not purchased our experi-
 “ ence sufficiently dear, let us derive a lesson of wisdom from
 “ the misfortunes of other nations, who, like us, pursued the
 “ phantom of foreign conquest and distant colonization, and
 “ who, in the end, found themselves less populous, opulent and
 “ powerful.”

WOOL. As the woollen manufacture is deemed the staple
 commodity of England, it is judged most fit to notice that first
 among the objects of home trade, intended here to be describ-
 ed. It cannot be doubted, that as the inhabitants of Britain
 and Ireland, so the sheep also, came originally from some other
 country, and probably from Spain ; but the report that
 Henry II. or some other prince, sent for rams or sheep from
 thence, in order to improve our breed, is considered fabulous.
 At what period the manufacture was first introduced, is not as-
 certained ; but that England possessed it, at least in some degree,
 about the beginning of the twelfth century, is indisputable.
 There seems to be but small, if any, foundation for the tale of
 Edward IV. sending over some English sheep from Cotswold to
 Spain, and thus conferring on that country, its excellent breed
 of sheep. The Spaniards themselves attribute the great im-
 provement of their wool to the care of Cardinal Ximenes,
 who brought over from Africa, rams bred by the Arabians ;
 a practice by no means new in Spain, where the management
 and improvement of their flocks has always been the favoured
 point of their economy.

As

As wool and woollen manufactures continued for many ages the principal commodities of this country, so they were the constant objects of government. Our Kings drew a large revenue from the customs on wool exported, a great part of which went into the Low Countries, where it was manufactured in great perfection, to the no small emolument of the inhabitants, who, while they could be plentifully supplied by us, did not give themselves much concern about procuring wool from other countries. As our manufacture also became considerable, and much of our woollen cloth was exported; many regulations were made for fixing its reputation, by ascertaining the fineness and measure of the respective kinds of cloth at home, and the assigning certain ports, both here and in foreign parts, from which, and to which only, they should be exported, and these were stiled *Staples*, which, according to the fluctuating politics of those times, were frequently changed. From the same cause arose the privileges granted at different periods, with respect to the company of foreign merchants of the steelyard, and the English company of merchant adventurers, with restraints on the rest of the subjects from exporting cloths, which, though they appear to modern times strange, and utterly incompatible with the public interest, were not so considered in the ages when they were established. In fact, however, very great exportations were made, which could not but be very advantageous to the nation, and, at the same time, the wealth of these corporations enabled them to make great loans, and to be in other respects very serviceable to government, which, generally speaking, protected them against those who complained of their monopolies. But in process of time, as commerce became better understood, and a spirit of freedom gradually prevailed, the first of these companies gave way, though the latter still maintained its ground, as being composed of English merchants, whose monopoly was viewed with less envy than that of aliens, and whose great riches gave them extensive influence, and procured them considerable support.

In the glorious reign of Elizabeth, many wise laws were enacted in favour of this important manufacture, and many new channels opened, by which, in time, the exportation of woollen cloths was increased to a million and a half annually. It does not however appear that there was any prohibition by law against the exporting of wool until the succeeding reign, when it was forbidden by proclamation, and many statutes were from time to time made, for regulating commerce in wool, the the general effect of which will be noticed below.

The British islands possess great natural advantages in respect both to this valuable material and its manufacture, and such
as

as in regard to either cannot be taken from us. For we have sheep of very different sizes, and their wool is also of very different qualities, yet all are serviceable to some purpose or other, and consequently all of some, though not of the same worth. The Spanish wools which we import, are only those of their first and finest sort, since we have enough of our own, equal, if not superior to the rest; and those fine Spanish wools are equally necessary, for the uses to which we apply them, to the French, the Dutch, and all other nations. We have been able therefore to enter into every branch of the cloth and stuff manufactures, known in our statute books by the name of old and new draperies, and to carry them to the highest perfection. Besides entering into the fabric of these, wool is employed in a vast variety of ways, in the making of caps, gloves, stockings, and a vast number of other articles, so that a mere list of them, and of those to whom they give subsistence, would form a considerable treatise. A prodigious multitude of artisans is employed in them, including persons of all ages and sexes, forming a most extensive source of benefit to the whole community.

The principal manufacture of woollen cloth and kerseymere in England is carried on in the county of York; at Norwich are extensive establishments for the making of stuffs, or woollen textures of a lighter composition; in Essex are made baizes, and various other articles; flannels are produced in Shropshire and Wales; and in many parts of the kingdom, all these manufactures are also carried on. There are besides many establishments for making of carpets which are brought to great perfection.

The following estimates of the number of packs of wool (of 240 pounds each), and of the value of the broad and narrow cloths, together with the supposed amount of the other branches of the woollen manufacture in the West-riding of Yorkshire, and also in the whole kingdom, in the year 1799, are taken from the evidence given by several manufacturers to a committee of the house of commons in April 1800:

72,734 packs, average value 11/. or total	
800,074/. made 272,755 pieces broad, of	£
the estimated value of - - -	3,795,157
30,028 packs, average value 14/. or total	
420,392/. made 180,168 pieces narrow,	
average value 6/. - - -	1,081,008
Total value of broad and narrow cloths	4,876,165
Blankets and other goods (apparently including kerseymeres) supposed above -	1,600,000
Carried forward	6,476,165
2	Stuffs,

	Brought over	£ 6,476,165
Stuffs, or worsted goods, supposed to amount to		1,400,000

The whole woollen goods made in the riding being thus estimated at 7,876,165

Some of the same gentlemen estimated the quantity of wool annually produced from 28,800,000 sheep, the supposed stock in the kingdom, to be 600,000 packs, for which they assumed the medium value of 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ per pack, the whole being 6,600,000

The value is increased in the manufacture, from double to nine-fold: assuming three-fold as an average, the total value of woollen goods manufactured in the whole kingdom is 19,800,000

In the year 1782, it was estimated at 14,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ and in 1791 at 19,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$.

This vast manufacture is supposed to give employment to three millions of men, women, boys and girls, notwithstanding the decrease of the quantity of wool, and the great abridgment of labour by the use of machinery, which, in the various processes previous to the weaving, was stated by one manufacturer to accomplish by the hands of 35 persons the work, which about the year 1785 required the labour of 1,634 persons. The capital vested in machinery, and buildings appropriated to the woollen manufacture in various parts of the country, was supposed to be about 6,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$. It is evident that the foreign demand for woollen manufactures has lately extended beyond the power of the country to supply it: for many more orders have been sent to the manufacturers than they could possibly find wool to execute. The increased demand may be ascribed, partly to the failure of some manufacturers on the continent, occasioned by political convulsions, and partly to the augmentation of the military establishments of every country in Europe. The deficiency of wool is imputed to the increase of inclosures for the purpose of raising corn for the subsistence of the increased number of people in the country and its foreign dependencies, and the unprecedented number of consumers in the army and navy. In addition to all the wool produced in the country, the importation of Spanish and other fleeces has, in some years, exceeded five millions of pounds weight.

Laws. So vigilant has the legislature been in its endeavours to protect this most valuable branch of commerce, that many statutes have been enacted for regulating the manufacture in all its processes, applying distinctly to the winding of wool, to the cards

cards for manufacturing it, to the prevention of deceit in making cloth, and to the fulling, dyeing, stretching and dressing of cloth, with particular regulations for particular species and places.

For the *measuring of cloth*, the statutes generally provide that the yard shall consist of a standard yard, and the breadth of a man's thumb besides; or 37 inches in the whole. In every parish and hamlet where cloths are made, two justices (and in corporations, the mayor, together with one justice of the shire next adjoining) shall, once a year, or oftener, call before them, by precept or otherwise, two, four, six, eight or more, of the most honest, discreet, and able men of such place, and appoint them overseers for a year, or six months, or shorter time; and shall take them sworn, and bound in recognizance of 40 *l.* each, to do their best endeavour, by all lawful ways and means, to see the statutes observed, relating to the regulation of cloth. And the said overseers, or two of them, shall once a month at least, or so often as need shall require, go into the houses and rooms where the cloth shall be, and search, and try the same, by water, weight, or any other way. And if any shall withhold cloth, or deny search, he shall, on conviction at the sessions, forfeit for the first offence 10 *l.* for the second 20 *l.* for the third, being convicted by verdict and two witnesses, he shall stand upon the pillory in the next market town.

And by the 4 *Ja. c. 1.* the several sorts of cloth shall be in length and breadth at the water, when thoroughly wet, and in weight, when scoured, thicked, milled and fully dried, as follows:

	Yards long.	Quarters broad.	Pounds weight.
Long coloured broad cloth -	30 to 34	6½	86
Long <i>Worcester</i> -	30 to 33	7	78
Long plunkets, azures, blues, and long whites	29 to 32	6½	80
Sorting cloths with a blue fel- vedge -	23 to 26	6	64
Fine <i>short Suffolks</i> -	23 to 26	6½	64
Handwarps -	29 to 32	7	76
Broad plunkets, azures, blues, and other broad coloured	26 to 23	6½	68
Coloured short -	23 to 26	6½	66
Half pieces of the same called do- zens, in proportion.			
Broad listed white and reds -	26 to 28	6½	64
Narrow listed whites -	26 to 28	6½	61
Narrow listed reds -	26 to 28	6½	60
Fine cloth with plain lists -	29 to 32	6½	72
Cloths having stopt lists -	30 to 33	7	78

Broads,

	Yards long.	Quarters broad.	Pounds weight.
Broads, called <i>Taunton, Bridgewater,</i> and <i>Dunsters</i> - -	12 to 13	7	30
Narrow ditto -	24 to 25	4	30
Half cloth in proportion.			
<i>Devonshire</i> kerseys, called dozens	12 to 13		13
Check kerseys, straits and plain greys -	17 to 18	4	24
Ordinary Penistones, or forest whites -	12 to 13	5½	28
Sorting Penistones	13 to 14	6½	35
Kerseys, called washers, or wash whites half thicked	17 to 18		17
The same quarter thicked	18 to 19		17

Ordinary kersey should not exceed 24 yards in length, and must weigh one pound and three ounces a yard: sorting kersey may not exceed 24 yards in length, and shall weigh one pound three ounces and a half for every yard. Trizes and ruggs shall be from 35 to 37 yards long, three quarters of a yard within a nail broad, and 44 pounds weight. For the enforcement of these regulations there are penalties of various amount.

Woolcombers, having served an apprenticeship, are impowered by 25 Geo. III. c. 124, to exercise that, or any other trade or business they are apt and able for, in any town or place, without molestation, and are not removeable to their place of settlement, until they become actually chargeable.

Against the *exportation of wool* and the importation of foreign woollen cloth, numerous statutes have been enacted, some which are fallen into disuse, making offences felony; others imposing heavy penalties on actions in themselves far from criminal. On these laws, after enumerating them, Dr. Adam Smith makes the following reflections. "Our woollen manufacturers, in order to justify their demand of such extraordinary restrictions and regulations, confidently asserted, that English wool was of a peculiar quality, superior to that of any other country; that the wool of other countries could not, without some mixture of it, be wrought up into any tolerable manufacture; that fine cloth could not be made without it; that England therefore, if the exportation of it could be totally prevented, could monopolize to herself almost the whole woollen trade of the world; and thus, having no rivals, could sell at what price she pleased, and in a short time acquire the most incredible degree of wealth by the most advantageous balance of trade. This doctrine, like most other doctrines which are confidently asserted by any considerable number of people, was, and still continues to be, most implicitly believed by a much greater number; by almost all

all those who are either unacquainted with the woollen trade, or who have not made particular inquiries. It is, however, so perfectly false, that English wool is in any respect necessary for the making of fine cloth, that it is altogether unfit for it. Fine cloth is made altogether of Spanish wool. English wool cannot be even so mixed with Spanish wool as to enter into the composition without spoiling and degrading, in some degree, the fabric of the cloth. The effect of these regulations has been to depress the price of English wool, not only below what it naturally would be in the present times, but very much below what it actually was in the time of Edward III. The price of Scots wool, when in consequence of the union it became subject to the same regulations, is said to have fallen about one half. It is observed by the very accurate and intelligent author of the *Memoirs of Wool*, the reverend Mr. John Smith, that the price of the best English wool in England is generally below what wool of a very inferior quality commonly sells for in the market at Amsterdam. To depress the price of this commodity below what may be called its natural and proper price, was the avowed purpose of those regulations; and there seems to be no doubt of their having produced the effect that was expected from them. This reduction of price, it may perhaps be thought, by discouraging the growing of wool, must have reduced very much the annual produce of that commodity, though not below what it formerly was, yet below what, in the present state of things, it would probably have been, had it, in consequence of an open and free market, been allowed to rise to the natural and proper price. I am, however, disposed to believe, that the quantity of the annual produce cannot have been much, though it may perhaps have been a little affected by these regulations. The growing of wool is not the chief purpose for which the sheep farmer employs his industry and stock. He expects his profit, not so much from the price of the fleece, as from that of the carcase; and the average or ordinary price of the former. Whatever regulations tend to sink the price, either of wool or of raw hides, below what it naturally would be, must, in an improved and cultivated country, have some tendency to raise the price of butchers' meat. The price both of the great and small cattle, which are fed on improved and cultivated land, must be sufficient to pay the rent which the landlord, and the profit which the farmer has reason to expect from improved and cultivated land. If it is not, they will soon cease to feed them. Whatever part of this price, therefore, is not paid by the wool and the hide, must be paid by the carcase. The less there is paid for the one the more must be paid for the other. In what manner this price is to be divided upon the different parts of
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the beast, is indifferent to the landlords and farmers, provided it is all paid to them. In an improved and cultivated country, therefore, their interest as landlords and farmers cannot be much affected by such regulations, though their interests as consumers may, by the rise in the price of provisions. According to this reasoning, therefore, this degradation in the price of wool is not likely, in an improved and cultivated country, to occasion any diminution in the annual produce of that commodity; except so far as, by raising the price of mutton, it may somewhat diminish the demand for, and consequently the production of, that particular species of butchers' meat. Its effect, however, even in this way, it is probable, is not very considerable. But though its effect upon the quantity of the annual produce may not have been very considerable, its effect upon the quality, it may perhaps be thought, must necessarily have been very great. The degradation in the quality of English wool, if not below what it was in former times, yet below what it naturally would have been in the present state of improvement and cultivation, must have been, it may perhaps be supposed, very nearly in proportion to the degradation of price. As the quality depends upon the breed, upon the pasture, and upon the management and cleanliness of the sheep, during the whole progress of the growth of the fleece, the attention to these circumstances, it may naturally enough be imagined, can never be greater than in proportion to the recompence which the price of the fleece is likely to make for the labour and expense which that attention requires. It happens, however, that the goodness of the fleece depends, in a great measure, upon the health, growth, and bulk of the animal; the same attention which is necessary for the improvement of the carcase is, in some respects, sufficient for that of the fleece. Notwithstanding the degradation of price, English wool is said to have been improved considerably during the course even of the present century. The improvement might perhaps have been greater if the price had been better; but the lowness of price, though it may have obstructed, yet certainly it has not altogether prevented that improvement. The violence of these regulations, therefore, seems to have affected neither the quantity nor the quality of the annual produce of wool so much as it might have been expected to do (though I think it probable that it may have affected the latter a good deal more than the former); and the interest of the growers of wool, though it must have been hurt in some degree, seems, upon the whole, to have been much less hurt than could well have been imagined. These considerations, however, will not justify the absolute prohibition of the exportation of wool. But they will fully justify the imposition of a considerable

able tax upon that exportation. To hurt in any degree the interest of any one order of citizens, for no other purpose but to promote that of some other, is evidently contrary to that justice and equality of treatment which the sovereign owes to all the different orders of his subjects. But the prohibition certainly hurts, in some degree, the interest of the growers of wool, for no other purpose but to promote that of the manufacturers. Every different order of citizens is bound to contribute to the support of the sovereign or commonwealth. A tax of five, or even of ten shillings upon the exportation of every tod of wool, would produce a very considerable revenue to the sovereign. It would hurt the interests of the growers somewhat less than the prohibition, because it would not probably lower the price of wool quite so much. It would afford a sufficient advantage to the manufacturer, because, though he might not buy his wool altogether so cheap as under the prohibition, he would still buy it at least five or ten shillings cheaper than any foreign manufacturer could buy it, besides saving the freight and insurance, which the other would be obliged to pay. It is scarcely possible to devise a tax which could produce any considerable revenue to the sovereign, and at the same time occasion so little inconveniency to any body. The prohibition, notwithstanding all the penalties which guard it, does not prevent the exportation of wool. It is exported, it is well known, in great quantities. The great difference between the price in the home, and that in the foreign market, presents such a temptation to smuggling, that all the rigour of the law cannot prevent it. This illegal exportation is advantageous to nobody but the smuggler. A legal exportation, subject to a tax, by affording a revenue to the sovereign, and thereby saving the imposition of some other, perhaps, more burdensome and inconvenient taxes, might prove advantageous to all the different subjects of the state.

COTTON. The manufacture of cotton, formerly of little account, is now among the most productive articles brought into use by the ingenuity and industry of British artists. The great advantages gained by Great Britain in this particular are owing to the machinery employed, respecting which, the following details are afforded by Mr. Macpherson. In the early part of the eighteenth century, an engine for spinning cotton was invented by Mr. Paul, with the assistance of some others in London, who having obtained a patent, made trial of it at Nottingham and elsewhere, to the great loss of all concerned. Other schemes for spinning cotton by machinery have since been tried, and proved equally abortive. About the year 1767 the discovery of this great desideratum in mechanics and manufacture was

attempted by three different persons. The first, I believe, was Mr. Hargrave, of Blackwell in Lancashire, who constructed an engine capable of spinning 20 or 30 threads of cotton yarn fit for fustians; but his machinery being destroyed by popular tumult, he removed to Nottingham, where his patent right was overthrown by an association formed against him; and he died in want. Mr. Hayes invented a spinning engine and cylindrical carding engines, but never brought them to perfection. Mr. Arkwright, for whom the accomplishment of this great object was reserved, after many experiments, finished his first engine in the year 1768; and in the following year he took out a patent. He still, however, continued to study new improvements upon his invention; and in the year 1775, having brought his original machinery to a greater degree of perfection, and having also invented machines for preparing the cotton for spinning, he obtained a fresh patent for his new invention. Hitherto he and his partners had reaped no profits from the undertaking; but now, proper buildings being erected, at the expense of 30,000*l.* and the machinery being made capable to be put in motion by the strength of cattle, water, steam, or any other regular moving power, it began, notwithstanding some losses from riots, excited by envy or ignorant apprehension, to be productive to the proprietors, and an object of great importance to the whole nation.

Manufacturers and other men of property now wished to participate the benefit of Arkwright's invention; and several spinning mills were soon erected in various parts of the country, the proprietors of which contracted to pay him a certain annual rent for every spindle contained in their machinery. Several spinning mills, established in Lancashire, the west part of Scotland, and elsewhere, together with the general use of the jennies (engines for spinning the woof or weft), produced such an abridgment of labour, and improvement in the fabric, the yarn being spun upon truer principles than if done by the hand, that the prices of the goods were much reduced, and consequently the British manufactures of cotton goods of all kinds were greatly extended; and many thousands of people, including women and children of both sexes, were now instructed in various operations of the business.

In the years 1782 and 1783 Mr. Arkwright petitioned the house of commons, in consideration of the great losses and expenses incurred before his invention had begun to bring him any emolument, during which term his patent was running out, to extend the duration of his exclusive privilege for the original machinery, so as it might expire along with the term granted by his second patent. But the object being now of such magnitude

nitude and established importance, counter petitions came in from all quarters; and he was moreover attacked upon points of law, his antagonists alleging, that he was not the inventor of the preparing machine; in answer to which Mr. Arkwright argued that a pirate, who stole the invention from another, would have appeared at once with his machinery in a perfect state; whereas it was well known, that he was many years employed in experiments, before he brought it to the degree of perfection it had now attained. After long litigation the cause was determined in the Court of Common Pleas (18th February 1785) in favour of Mr. Arkwright, and in the Court of King's Bench (27th June 1785) against him. And as his first patent expired about the same time, the business became open to all.

It is proper to observe, that at least four spinning mills were already erected in Ireland; and two were established near Rouen in France under the able direction of Mr. Holker, an English manufacturer, who, with his partners, was patronised and assisted by the government. It was not long before Arkwright's machinery was even transported across the Atlantic, and a spinning mill erected in Philadelphia.

Mr. Arkwright continued the business after he was deprived of the monopoly, and, probably, with some advantages over his competitors, derived from his experience and established plan of conducting the business. If he made a great fortune, he certainly deserved it: for the advantages he conferred upon the nation were infinitely greater than those he acquired for himself, and far more solid and durable than a hundred conquests. Instead of depriving the working poor of employment by his great abridgment of labour, that very abridgment has created a vast deal of employment for more hands than were formerly employed: and it was computed, that half a million of people were this year employed in the cotton manufactures of Lancashire, Cheshire, Derby, Nottingham, and Leicester. That computation was perhaps exaggerated: but the numbers must have been very great, as we find by the report of the committee of the house of commons this same year on the business of the commercial intercourse with Ireland, that 6800 were employed by Mr. Peele, several thousands by Mr. Smith, and numbers proportionally great by other manufacturers of cotton. How many more, may we suppose, are now supported by the cotton manufacture in its vastly extended state? For that extension Great Britain is indebted to the ingenuity and persevering patience of an originally obscure individual. And it is but justice to the memory of Sir Richard Arkwright * to say, that he was

* He was knighted in the year 1786, and died at his seat in Derbyshire in 1792.

unquestionably one of the greatest friends to the manufacturing and commercial interests of this country, and to the interest of the cotton planters in almost all parts of the world that ever existed; and that his name ought to be transmitted to future ages along with those of the most distinguished real benefactors of mankind.

The manufacture of calicoes, which was begun in Lancashire in 1772, was in 1785 pretty generally established in several parts of England and Scotland. The manufacture of mullins in England was begun in 1781, and was rapidly increasing. In 1783 there were above a thousand looms set up in Glasgow for that most beneficial article, in which the skill and labour of the mechanic raise the raw material to twenty times its value, when imported. Bengal, which for some thousand years stood unequalled in the fabric of muslins, figured calicoes, and other fine cotton goods, is rivalled in several parts of Great Britain; and now, those articles which used to drain vast sums of money out of this country, help to swell the profitable balance of British commerce.

The progress of the Irish in the same line of industry must not be overlooked, and the laudable and spirited exertions of Captain Robert Brooke deserve particular notice. In 1780 that gentleman established a cotton manufacture on his lands situated on the great canal about eighteen miles west from Dublin. In 1782 the government of Ireland, understanding that some of the manufacturers of Manchester intended to remove to America, and carry their machinery with them, found means to persuade them to go to Ireland, and gave Captain Brooke about 3,000 *l.* for settling them in houses on his lands: and they afterwards advanced him 32,000 *l.* upon interest and security, that he might give employment to a great number of weavers, who were then starving and riotous for want of employment in Dublin, at his settlement, where, it was hoped, they would behave industriously and quietly, being at a distance from the contagion of the metropolis. By means of these, and other acquisitions of inhabitants, the manufacturing village, which was called by the auspicious name of Prosperous, consisted of several hundred houses, erected on a spot, where in 1780 there stood one single hut; and the manufacture gave employment to about three thousand people, men, women, and children.

Besides Captain Brooke's, which was the principal, there are several other manufactures of cotton established in various parts of Ireland in the last three or four years by the spirited exertions of individuals, and the liberal encouragement of the parliament.

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The rapid increase in the number of spinning engines, which took place in consequence of the expiration of Arkwright's patent, forms a new era, not only in manufactures and commerce, but also in the dress of both sexes. The common use of silk, if it were only to be worn while it retains its lustre, is proper only for ladies of ample fortune. And yet women of almost all ranks affected to wear it; and many in the lower classes of the middle ranks of society distressed their husbands, parents, and brothers, to procure that expensive finery. Neither was a handsome cotton gown attainable by women in humble circumstances; and thence the cottons were mixed with linen yarn to reduce their price; but now cotton yarn is cheaper than linen yarn; and cotton goods are much used in lieu of cambrics, lawns, and other expensive fabrics of flax; and they have almost totally superseded the silks. Women of all ranks, from the highest to the lowest, are clothed in British manufactures of cotton, from the muslin cap on the crown of the head to the cotton stocking under the sole of the foot. The ingenuity of the calico printers has kept pace with that of the weavers and others concerned in the preceding stages of the manufacture, and produced patterns of printed goods, which for elegance of drawing exceed every thing that ever was imported, and for durability of colour generally stand the washing so well, as to appear fresh and new every time they are cleansed, and give an air of neatness and cleanliness to the wearer beyond the elegance of silk in the first freshness of its transitory lustre. But even the most splendid prints are excelled by the superior beauty and virgin purity of the muslins, the growth and the manufacture of the British dominions.

With the gentlemen, cotton stuffs for waistcoats have almost superseded woollen cloths, and silk stuffs: and they have the advantage, like the ladies' gowns, of having a new and fresh appearance every time they are washed. Cotton stockings have also become very general.

The art of *printing on linen and calico* appears to have been introduced into England in 1676, and was speedily brought to considerable perfection. In 1782, a petition having been presented to parliament by the calico printers, wherein they set forth, that the East India Company had taken advantage of the improvements, introduced into their business some years ago, in printing upon engraved plates of copper and metals, by sending out plates and workmen to their settlements in India, where the low price of labour enabled them to print their calicoes much cheaper than the petitioners were able to do; and that great quantities of such printed goods were imported, and

it being next to impossible to distinguish them from British printed goods, the petitioners were in danger of being ruined, and the trade and revenue of the kingdom were in danger of being greatly injured. It was thereupon enacted, that whoever should entice any workman employed in printing calicoes, cottons, muslins, or linens, or in making blocks, plates, or utensils, for such manufacture, to go beyond the sea, should be punished by a fine of 500 *l.* and also be imprisoned for twelve months; and, in case of a second offence, the fine and imprisonment should be doubled. Any persons found guilty of exporting blocks, plates or utensils, for the printing business, is also liable to a fine of 500 *l.*; and commanders of vessels, knowingly suffering such blocks, &c. to be received on board, are subjected to a penalty of 100 *l.*

No account being kept in either part of the united kingdom of the manufacture of cotton, except the calicoes and muslins which are printed, the quantity of which is known with certainty by means of the duty paid upon them, the amount in general can only be ascertained by conjecture, founded upon such documents as can be obtained. The number of yards of printed calicoes and muslins in 1800 was 33,502,399; the amount of duties on them 511,582 *l.* 7 *s.* 8 *d.* If we follow, Mr. Macpherson adds, the calculation assumed in an estimate laid before a committee of the house of commons, that the duty is one tenth of the value, we may estimate the price of the British calicoes and muslins printed in England and Wales in 1800 at - - - - - £4,184,365

The quantity of white calicoes and muslins, made in England and Wales, is probably much greater than that of the printed; and though they do not incur the expense of printing and duty, yet, as a greater proportion of them are fine goods, the value of them is perhaps rather above - 3,000,000

There are many other fabrics of cotton of which it seems impossible to make any estimate.

The annual export of British cotton manufactures from all the ports of Great Britain, on the average of three years, 1797—1799, was - 4,175,236

These estimates, or conjectures, he apprehends, constitute all the attainable materials for illustrating the state of this great and important manufacture, and, after using every endeavour to obtain a more satisfactory account, he adopts the opinion conveyed in a letter from a gentleman, at the head of some of the greatest manufacturing establishments in the kingdom, that the object is beyond the reach of individual investigation, and, unless government

government shall order an inquiry, it can only be estimated by the importation of cotton, which is for the most part manufactured at home. The quantity of cotton of all kinds imported during 1800, in England was 42,806,507 pounds; in Scotland 13,204,225 pounds; total 56,010,732 pounds.

Perhaps the manufacture in Scotland, as being in a narrower field, is more within the reach of individual observation than that of England. He therefore submits to the reader, as being apparently a near approximation to the truth, the following

Estimate of the state of the cotton manufacture in Scotland, made up in the year 1796, at Glasgow, the centre of the principal commerce and manufactures of that kingdom.

Thirty-nine water mills, which cost for machinery and buildings 10,000 <i>l.</i> each	-	-	£	390,000
And work	-	-	124,800 spindles.	
One thousand two hundred common jennies, 84 sp. each	-	100,800	6 each	7,200
Six hundred mule jennies, 144 sp. each	-	-	86,400 30 each	18,000
Total, working by day and night	312,000	spindles.		
Building for the jennies cost	-	-	-	75,000
Capital invested in machinery and buildings	-			490,200
The yarn annually spun is valued at	-	-		1,256,412
The cotton, 4,629,043 lbs.; average value 2 <i>s.</i>	-			462,904
The people employed, are estimated at 25,000 of both sexes, young and old, but the greatest number under 15 years of age, whose labour, aided by machinery, thus improves the value of the raw material in the first stage of manufacture	-	-	-	793,508
From which deduct wages, estimated at	-			500,000
And there remains a compensation for the cost and wear and tear of the machinery, and proprietors profits, the sum of	-	-	-	293,508

The annual value of calicoes and muslins, now deservedly deemed *the staple of Scotland*, when finished, including the excise duty on a part of them which are printed, and the cost of

of tambouring and needle-work on about a third part of them, was then estimated at - - - £ 3,108,549
 The value of the cotton yarn, as above 1,256,412
 To which add for yarn got from England 520,000

1,776,412

The wages of weavers, tambourers, needle workers, the charges, the profits of the manufacturers, and the revenue paid to government, - - -
 thus amounted to - - - 1,332,137

Which great sum is produced by capital, ingenuity, management, and labour, in the subsequent stages of the business.

The cotton manufacture in Scotland employs 38,815 weavers,
 For winding warp and weft - - - 12,938 women,

And, supposing one third part of the muslin adorned with tambouring or needle work 105,000 women, and girls, mostly children.

Besides those employed in the spinning branch, 25,000 persons,

Hence it appears that - - - 181,753 persons derive their immediate subsistence from the cotton manufacture in Scotland, and also a proportional number in England employed in producing yarn to the value of 520,000*l.*; besides the innumerable people of all classes concerned in providing necessaries and accommodations of every kind for that great multitude, and in constructing and repairing the machinery and buildings; and the cultivators of the cotton in the East and West Indies, seamen, merchants, &c. who are all wholly or partly supported by this most beneficial manufacture, whereby the cotton is raised, taking the whole manufacture together, to be about seven times the value it was of when imported.

Such are the blessings of these truly valuable establishments, which unite individual interest and national advantage with the truest and best of charities; that of rendering the poor useful to the community and to themselves, and placing them above the acceptance of gratuitous support, the premium of indolence, and poison of industry, which debases the spirits of those whom it cannot permanently feed.

LINEN. The rise and progress of the linen manufacture in the British dominions is traced by Mr. Oddy, who, after mentioning its rise and value among the ancients, proceeds. From Italy, the linen manufacture went to France, from thence to Flanders, where it made a stand; afterwards to Holland; from Flanders we received it, as well as the Germans; and it has spread at a very late period from thence to the east and northern parts of Europe. In encouraging the woollen manufacture at an early period, some attention was paid to that of linen.

linen. Henry III. in the 37th year of his reign, ordered the sheriffs of Wilts and Suffex to buy, for his wardrobe at Westminster, one thousand ells of fine linen, made in each of their respective counties. When Cardinal Wolsey's goods were seized by Henry VIII. amongst other articles were found one thousand pieces of fine Holland linen; a proof that the manufacture was not carried to much perfection in this country; and, by the enormous provision of it, that it was not readily to be had; for, in the inventory, we do not find woollen cloth, that being a manufacture established here long before; and probably that could be purchased when wanted. The reign of James I. was the first period for encouraging the linen manufacture by authority; from that time it was left to itself till 1696, when an act passed which may be said to have been the foundation act for encouraging the manufacture of linens in Ireland. Hemp and flax the growth, and sail-cloth the manufacture, of that kingdom, were all imported into England, duty free; and so far had the manufacturing of sail-cloth increased by this time, that the English manufacture was allowed to be exported duty free. The linen manufacture in Ireland was farther promoted by the French protestant refugees, and a sort of a compact made in 1698, when the English parliament addressed his majesty to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage that of the linen. An act passed in 1704, by which Irish linens were allowed to be exported from any port in Ireland directly to the British plantations.

Sir William Temple, a strenuous advocate at an early period for promoting the Irish linen manufacture, foretold the great improvement in 1681; and with some gallantry made the following observations: "No women are apter to spin linen
" thread well than the Irish, who, labouring little in any kind
" with their hands, have their fingers more supple and soft
" than other women of the poor condition amongst us. And
" this may certainly be advanced and improved into a great
" manufacture of linen, so as to beat down the trade both of
" France and Holland, and draw much of the money which
" goes from England to those parts upon this occasion into the
" hands of his majesty's subjects of Ireland, without crossing
" any interest of trade in England, for, beside what has been
" said of flax and spinning in Ireland, its climate is proper for
" whitening, both by the frequent brooks, and also of winds, in
" that country."

The encouragement given in England to the Irish linen manufacture was most properly seconded by the Irish parliament; and, to promote the linen manufacture, from its first encouragement in 1696 to 1750, it is calculated that no less than half a million sterling was expended, which produced an im-
menſe

menſe increaſe in the manufacture. About the year 1691, it was ſuppoſed that Ireland did not export in yarn and linens to the amount of fix thouſand pounds altogether; but in 1751 the export had advanced to 893,000 *l.* Moderate as this quantity appears at the preſent day, it was found ſufficient to create alarm among all the foreign linen manufacturing countries at that time; and in 1778, it exceeded 1,400,000 *l.* In 1780, in conſequence of the very able report of the Board of Trade, drawn up, and laid before the right honourable the lords of the committee of council, appointed to conſider the Irish bills, many judicious acts of parliament were made to grant bounties, regulate and encourage every object tending to increaſe the linen manufacture of Ireland, which has been ſupported and protected by the right honourable John Forſter, who may be juſtly termed the guardian of the linen manufacture of Ireland. Under his auſpices the linen trade of Ireland was carried to a very high pitch, ſo that in the year ending the 5th of January 1805, the quantity exported was, 42,988,621 yards, making, at 1*s.* 3*d.* per yard, 2,686,788 *l.*

Scotland has not the advantage of ſoil, climate, nor the population of Ireland, but certainly excels it in induſtry and application; a ſtronger proof cannot be adduced, than that whilſt Ireland was receiving extenſive pecuniary aid to promote her linen manufacture, that of Scotland had got to ſo low an ebb that the annual convention held at Edinburgh, in July 1725, took it into their ſerious conſideration, and, in the following year, ſeveral ſchemes and propoſals for encouraging their fiſheries and manufactures were reſolved upon, one of which was to petition his Majeſty. The king, in return, was pleaſed to cauſe the Lord Advocate to lay before the convention, in July 1726, his Majeſty's direction, ſtating the intereſt which his Majeſty took in their ſolicitude to promote the general intereſts of the country. A board of truſtees, in 1727, was eſtabliſhed for promoting the linen manufacture and extending the fiſheries of Scotland, according to an act of parliament. The very ſmall pecuniary aid allowed was amply compensated by the laudable economy and judicious management of that board, which produced the moſt happy and beneficial effects in a ſhort period; the produce of the manufacture amounting, in 1730, to 131,262 *l.* A ſum of only 1500 *l.* per annum was diſtributed in bounties for raiſing flax. Two thouſand acres were ſown in 1733, which had an effect of encouraging the linen manufacture; ſo that, after 1734, the average quantity of ten years, manufactured for ſale, was near 4,800,000 yards. In 1747, it began to wear a new aſpect, ſo that it gradually increaſed, in conſequence of the patriotic attention of individuals, and the board, which is a proof what individual exertion and united endeavours

deavours can do in a country. Betwixt the years 1757 and 1772, 225,606*l.* or 14,100*l.* per annum, was paid by the Irish parliament to encourage the linen manufactures of Ireland, whilst that of Scotland had but very limited means; never in any one year exceeding 3000*l.* for that object and promoting the fisheries.

The establishment of the British linen company, with a sufficient capital, was a salutary measure, because the needy manufacturer always found a market, which enabled him to keep his industry continually in activity; so that this linen manufacture gradually extended upon the whole, (with a little variation in some years,) till it has arrived to the extent we now find it, that is to say, in some years the quantity manufactured and exported for sale, has exceeded 1,100,000*l.* The linen manufactures of Scotland are more particularly adapted for the West-India market, and the falling off the last two years may partly be assigned to the precarious state of the trade in that quarter, and other causes which I shall shortly mention. The Irish manufacture has increased, being rather a finer quality than the Scotch linen. With these limited means of encouragement, and the many disadvantages Scotland labours under, not producing the raw material (as in Ireland) upon her own soil, she becomes dependent upon a foreign supply, at all times precarious and often high in price. Under these circumstances it is astonishing that it has risen to such an extent; nor can it be expected that Scotland can, from the nature of the soil, and the moderate extent of cultivation, raise the raw material in sufficient quantities for her consumption, it must either be raised in England or Ireland, or imported from abroad. When we have treated of the linen manufactures of Ireland and Scotland separately, Mr. Oddy, proceeds, it will be expected likewise that we should do so of England; but, in this branch, in the midst of her woollen and other various manufactures of Ireland and Scotland, vast quantities from Russia, Prussia, and Germany have been imported into Great Britain, or rather to England exclusively. The case seems to be, that in a wealthy country, where the value of money is low, as in England, it is not possible to enter into competition with labourers, who can live in cheap places, and do as much work as those who live in dear ones. Spinning and knitting stockings by hand, and other things that may be done at the foot of a mountain in Scotland or Wales, cannot be done in the same manner and for the same price in London. It is not even thought an object of economy to employ spare time in such sort of labour.

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Notwithstanding the heavy duties laid on the importation of foreign linens, which certainly operate as a sufficient bounty, besides the one which is granted on exportation; still we make no progress in this branch of manufacture in Great Britain: on the contrary, it is upon the decline, if we are to judge by the official value of British manufactured linens exported of late years; they having in 1798 and 1799 exceeded 1,100,000*l.* and in 1803, fallen to 561,310*l.* It may be said, that the great falling off in the exportation of 1803, was owing to the equipping of our army, navy, and volunteers; it may partly be so, but nevertheless the linen manufacture is upon the decline in Great Britain; the principal cause may be attributed to the unprecedented rapid advance of the cotton manufacture; in which the capital, labour, and attention of the manufacturers are employed, encouraged by the fashion of the times; still, if we pursue that, we ought not to neglect, but cultivate the linen manufacture at the same time; it is a branch of which we cannot be deprived, whilst that of cotton we may. It requires consideration, whether the present advantage in the manufacturing of cotton will in the end compensate for the loss we may sustain by neglecting the linen manufacture, but we should secure both; the raw material of one we can raise within ourselves, but not the other.

Besides this, in a rich country, where capital abounds, business that can be carried on with little capital seldom thrives; wealthy people will not so generally vest capital in a business like the linen, where they come in competition with poorer manufacturers, with single looms of weavers working in their own houses. If linen required dressing, dyeing, &c. like wool, or machinery like cotton, poor men could not do it, and then wealthy men would more generally enter into that trade.

Notwithstanding we have the means of carrying on the linen manufacture to any extent, our importation of foreign linens is upon the increase. The importation of foreign linen is chiefly to England, the duty on which, in 1804, was 208,802*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* and into Scotland only 727*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.* from the latter kingdom the chief part if not all is re-exported by the western ports. The above is the official value, which, upon the average of the last five years, amounts to 1,350,000*l.* England alone consumes in foreign linen; but if we reckon the real money paid, or the first cost, according to the exchange, it will fall little short of three millions sterling, an object of national consideration indeed for an article we can so well produce within ourselves. If we had no lands to raise the flax, hands to work it, nor mechanical facilities to spin the yarn, it would be excusable to import linens; but when we have such uncultivated large fertile tracts

on one hand, and a million of poor hands unemployed on the other, it is a national consideration worthy the exertion of the landed interest, in a double fold degree, to bring their waste lands into cultivation, to reduce the poors' rates, and encourage industry.

The linen manufacture is of the greatest consequence to this country, and one which ought more particularly to be cultivated; the great success of the cotton trade makes the manufacturers overlook the advantages of pursuing that of linen, although they have in their favour, not only high duties on foreign linen imported, but bounties on the exportation of what they manufacture.

It has been mentioned before, and it is somewhat curious, that in the early part of our commercial intercourse with Russia, we exported to that country our coarse linen cloths, and that we should now import such considerable quantities of linens from thence; this is turning the tables upon us, and ought to make us reflect seriously.

In Prussia, the linen manufacture has become one of the first importance in that kingdom, as well as throughout Germany; and for the use of manufacturers who will turn their attention to linen, a particular description has been given of the German linens, specifying the length, breadth, the marks, manner of making up, and the countries to which they are chiefly exported. Notwithstanding the lower price of the raw materials and labour in those countries compared with what it is in ours, still the greater capital and length of credit would, in ordinary cases, give us a decided preference; so that when we add to this, the abbreviation of labour by mechanism, now brought to perfection in this country, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition, if we are active, for we can undersell them. As we have got the complete monopoly of manufacturing our own sail cloth, so as to export largely, the same success may be expected in respect to linens in general, from which we might expect to derive so large a profit in industry, as 3,000,000 £ sterling per annum.

The spinning of flax into linen yarn by machinery upon nearly the same principle as cotton, has been found to make the yarn more even, and equally strong, as that spun by hand: already considerable quantities of cloth have been made from yarn spun in this manner; the cloth is found so excellent, that it cannot be distinguished from the foreign they have imitated, excepting that it is better. The manufactures at Leeds and Darlington, and several other places, have so completely succeeded, that we may shortly expect to see them general throughout the country; therefore, those who now embark in the manufacturing of linen,

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will completely have established their reputation, and secure the consequent profit, by the time others see the advantage.

The woollen trade never would have flourished in this country, had it not been in a most special manner encouraged and protected, and in particular by raising and preventing the exportation of the raw material. By what fatality is it then, that in this enlightened age, we neglect to do, or are ignorant of what was done in the remote times of Edward III.? Let us cultivate in abundance the material, and encourage the manufacture and application of machinery, and there is no doubt but that the linen trade will become amongst one of the best in the kingdom.

Of all the manufactures that exist, none deserves encouragement so much as the linen; the simplicity of the apparatus, and the smallness of the stock, make it a branch capable of being carried on, either by the poor, who are at present a burden on the public, or by others at spare times, when they would otherwise be idle; so that the whole will almost be clear gain, not as labour turned from another channel, but as labour arising from time that otherwise would not be occupied at all. If we consider with how few manufactures this is the case, we shall the more readily and the more highly appreciate that of linen.

SILK. The manufacture of silk in England has fluctuated extremely, being dependent on fashion, and never supported in any great degree by the benefits of an export trade, since the nations on the continent have rivalled and generally surpassed us in this article; yet when silk was much used in dress, especially among females, great numbers of British artists were supported by fabricating it; they had long enjoyed great profits and considerable reputation, when, in 1685, their art was greatly improved by the refugees from France, who sought in this country an asylum against a most inhuman and injudicious persecution. Of late, their trade has not been so flourishing, fashion having induced the female part of the community to adopt the system of wearing vegetable in preference to animal clothing; a system which to Dr. Johnson seemed so essential, as to make him, in a fit of sportive zeal, imagine himself the possessor of a Seraglio.

STOCKINGS. The introduction of stockings into England was not of very ancient date. The art of manufacturing them with knitting needles was learnt from Spain; the silk stockings said to have been first worn by Henry VIII. and Edward VI. were imported, but those presented to Queen Elizabeth in 1561, were manufactured at home. In 1589, or according to some in 1600, William Lee, A. M. of St. John's College in Cambridge, invented an engine or steel loom, called the stocking frame, for knitting or weaving stockings. This was but twenty-eight

years after we had first learned from Spain the method of knitting them by wires or needles. Mr. Lee's invention has proved a considerable benefit to the stocking manufacture, by enabling England, in after-times, to export vast quantities of silk stockings to Italy, &c. where it seems, by Sir Josiah Child's excellent Discourses on Trade, published in the year 1670, they had not then got the use of the stocking frame, though little short of a century after its invention. The trade of making stockings of silk, cotton, thread and worsted, continues to engage a great portion of industry, and to produce very large profits in many parts of the kingdom, and the frames are also employed in making pieces for breeches, pantaloons, and sometimes waistcoats. As an article of exportation, stockings have long been in considerable demand, and the trade still continues, although it is not considered as increasing.

For prevention of frauds in the manufacture of stockings, by the act 6 Geo. III. all persons found guilty of marking an untrue number of threads, were subjected to the loss of the goods falsely marked, with a penalty of five pounds for every piece. And for protection of the property of manufacturers in the hosiery branch, the retention or fraudulent sale of their frames by their journeymen, and the destruction of them, or any mills or other machinery, or of any hosiery work in the frames, were, by the 28th Geo. III. c. 85. made punishable by fine, imprisonment, and transportation.

HATS. The manufacture of hats is first noticed, as relating to England, in the fourteenth century, when the people of Flanders dealt largely in rabbit skins from England, which they are supposed to have made into hats. In a century afterward, 1463, however, the English nation had made such proficiency in this fabric, that in a long list of articles, the importation of which was forbidden, hats were included. Afterwards the trade was progressively improved by the use of machinery, the skill of the French refugees, and the introduction of the beaver's instead of the rabbit's fur. In consequence hats have long been an article of exportation to a large amount, and as all the materials with which they are made and coloured, and the hats themselves worn in England are taxed, they produce a considerable sum to the revenue. By 17 Geo. III. c. 50. the hat-makers were relieved from the hardships of an act of Elizabeth, and another of James I. whereby they were prohibited from employing any journeymen, who had not served seven years as apprentices. And by the 24 Geo. III. sess. 2. c. 21. in order to encourage the manufacture of hats, the exportation of the skins or wool of hares and conies was prohibited, and the importation of Turkey goat's-hair was permitted free of any duty.

LEATHER.

LEATHER. The manufacture of leather extends to numerous articles of dress and use, and is in all its forms carried to a great extent, and a source of ample profit to Great Britain. It were an useless task to follow in detail all the commodities in which leather is employed, as shoes, boots, gloves, breeches, book-binding, trunks, carriages, harness, saddles, and many others. Whoever considers them in the most cursory manner, must be convinced of the vast extent and importance of this branch of commerce. It is also highly beneficial to the revenue, the duties on leather being under the care of the commissioners of excise, and numerous laws are passed for the prevention of frauds in this most useful material, of which a slight outline will be given.

By 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 66. and 41 Geo. III. c. 33. after a repeal of some restraining clauses in former statutes, it was enacted, that the mayor, bailiff, or other head-officer of any city, town corporate, borough or market town; or in other places, two magistrates, shall appoint some proper and convenient place for examining and inspecting all the raw hides and skins of cattle, sheep, horses, and hogs, slaughtered or flayed within such place, or within certain distances thereof, and shall appoint convenient days and hours for the inspection of such hides or skins in such place; and cause notice to be put up in legible characters in some conspicuous place, annually, or oftener if necessary, to appoint some person or persons of competent skill to be inspector or inspectors of hides and skins within such districts; and also from time to time to supply such vacancies as may arise. The inspector takes an oath for the due execution of his office, and receives a fee for his trouble; that is, for the hide of every ox and other large animal inspected, a halfpenny; for every calf, hog, or pig skin, a farthing; and for every score of sheep or lamb skins, three pence. And if any butcher or other person, or his servant, shall wilfully or negligently cut or gash any hide or skin so as to make the same less valuable; or shall flay the hide of any ox, bull, cow, heifer, steer, stirk, or calf, (more than two inches, 41 Geo. III. c. 53.) below the knee or gambrel, and shall be convicted, before one justice, upon the oath of any inspector of hides, or any other witness, he shall forfeit, according to his offence, not more than five shillings, nor less than one shilling, or in cases of lambs, &c. not more than six pence, nor less than three pence. And the inspector is to provide two different stamps or marks, the one with the letter S. to denote good hides, the other with the letter D. to denote damaged hides; with the first of which he shall stamp, on or near the tail, every raw hide that is not damaged in the flaying; and with the other he shall stamp, on one of the fore shanks,
every

every raw hide that is damaged in the flaying. And if any butcher or other person shall wilfully neglect to bring any raw hides by this act required to be stamped to the place appointed, within the hours prescribed, or within ten days from the time of flaying the same, or shall remove or take away from such place, any such raw hide that has not been examined and marked by some inspector, or some person authorised by him, and approved by a magistrate of the district, he shall forfeit not exceeding 5 *l.* nor less than 40 *s.* for every such offence.

By 1 Jas. c. 22. No person shall be a tanner, but who has served as an apprentice seven years, except the wife or such son of a tanner as has used the trade for four years, or the son or daughter of a tanner, or such person who shall marry such wife or daughter, to whom he shall leave a tan-house and fats; on pain of forfeiting all leather by him tanned, or of which he shall receive any profit, or the value thereof. No tanner shall be a butcher, on pain of 6 *s.* 8 *d.* a day. No tanner shall be of any craft exercised in the cutting or working of leather; on pain of forfeiting the same or the value thereof. No person shall fell any oak trees, meet to be barked, where bark is worth 2 *s.* a cart-load over and above the charges of barking and pilling (except timber for houses, ships, or mills) but between April 1 and June 30; on pain of forfeiting the same or double the value thereof. And the whole process of tanning is minutely regulated.

By the same statute, no currier shall be a tanner, shoemaker, butcher or other artificer, using or cutting of leather; on pain of forfeiting 6 *s.* 8 *d.* for every hide he shall curry during the time he shall occupy any of the said mysteries. And curriers are obliged to curry the leather brought to them for that purpose within a reasonable time, under a penalty not exceeding 5 *l.*

By the same act the Lord Mayor, and aldermen of London (on pain of 40 *l.* for every year they make default, half to the king and half to him that shall sue) shall yearly appoint eight freemen of some of the companies of cordwainers, curriers, sadlers, or girdlers (whereof one shall be a sealer and keep a seal for the sealing of leather;) who shall be sworn before them to do their office truly; and they shall search and view all tanned leather brought to market, whether it is thoroughly tanned and dried; and if it is, shall seal the same. And four of the said searchers shall be removed at the end of the year, and four new ones chosen; and no one shall continue in the office above two years together, nor shall be employed again till after the end of three years, on pain of 10 *l.* a month. In other places, the number of these officers is two, three or more, and they are appointed by mayors, lords of liberties, fairs and markets, &c.

And they may search as often as they think good, or need shall be, and seal what they find sufficient; and if they find any leather offered to be sold, or brought to be sealed, which shall be insufficiently tanned or curried, or any boots, shoes, bridles, or other things made of tanned or curried leather, insufficiently tanned, curried or wrought, they may seize and keep the same, till they be tried by the triers.

The Lord Mayor of London (on pain of 5*l.* half to the king, and half to him that shall sue) shall, within six days after notice given to him of any seizure of any leather, red and unwrought, appoint six triers, two of the cordwainers company, two of the curriers, and two of the tanners using Leadenhall market, who, upon their oaths to be taken before him, shall, on the second or third market day for leather, to be holden on Tuesday, in the afternoon try whether the same be sufficient or not. Every other mayor, or lord of liberty, out of the compass of three miles from London, within whose precincts any seizure of any tanned leather, red or curried, or of any shoes, boots, or other wares made of tanned leather, shall be, shall (on like pain) with all convenient speed, after notice given to him of such seizure, appoint six honest and expert men, to try whether the same be sufficient or not; the same trial to be openly on some market day, and within fifteen days at the farthest from the time of the seizure, upon the oaths of the said triers. Triers not doing duty forfeit 5*l.*

No person is allowed to put to sale any tanned leather red and unwrought, but in open fair or market, unless the same has been first searched and sealed; nor shall offer to sale any tanned leather red and unwrought before it be searched and sealed; on pain of forfeiting the same, or the value thereof, and also for every hide or piece 6*s.* 8*d.* and for every dozen of calves skins 3*s.* 4*d.* All red tanned leather shall be bought only in the open fair or market, and not in any house, yard, shop, or other place; on pain of forfeiting the same or the value thereof, and the contract to be void. And all such leather shall be searched and sealed before sale, and on sale shall be registered and an entry made both by the buyer and seller, both being present, and their names and dwellings entered into the book of the register; on pain that every such buyer or seller who shall make default, shall forfeit the same or the value thereof. Searchers and sealers shall keep a register, wherein they shall enter all bargains made for leather, hides or skins, during the fair or market, being thereunto required by the buyer or seller, with the prices taken for searching, sealing, and registering of every ten hides, backs or butts of the seller, 2*d.* and so after the same rate. All red tanned leather which shall be brought into
London,

London, or within three miles thereof, shall be brought to Leadenhall before it be housed, and there viewed whether it has been searched or sealed, and shall be registered by the searchers, with half such fees to be paid for such of the said tanned leather as shall be bought out of London, or three miles compass from the same, and searched and sealed before it be brought within the city; on pain that every person housing or not bringing his leather to Leadenhall as aforesaid, shall forfeit for every hide or skin 6s. 8d. Within London, or three miles thereof, no person shall sell any wares appertaining to the mystery of any artificer cutting leather, but only in open shop, common fair or market, whereby the wardens may have search thereof; on pain of forfeiting the same, and also 10s.

No shoemakers shall make any boots or shoes, or any part of them, of English leather wet curried (other than deer skins, calves' skins or goat skins made and dressed like Spanish leather), but of leather well and truly tanned, and curried in manner aforesaid, or of leather well and truly tanned only, and well sewed. And if any shoemaker, sadler, or other artificer using of leather do make any wares of any tanned leather insufficiently tanned, or of tanned and curried leather being not sufficiently tanned and curried; he shall forfeit the same and the value thereof. And the master and wardens of the mysteries of cordwainers, curriers, girdlers, and sadlers of London (on pain of 40*l.* for every year they make default, half to the king and half to him that shall sue) shall, once a quarter or oftener, make search and view of all boots and shoes, and other wares made of tanned leather, within three miles of London, and if they are not truly wrought, they may seize and carry the same to the several common halls.

IRON. Iron, as it is the most useful, so it is through the wise distribution of Providence, the most common of all metals; it is plentifully found in all parts of the British dominions. The Romans wrought, and it is probable were the first who wrought our mines, as appears from their medals found in the heaps of flags and cinders, which are the only monuments remaining of their industry in this particular. The ore has many different appearances. Some is styled *Brush* ore, as being composed of threads growing on a red kind of earth, or hanging from the tops of caves or old works. Some in stones of a reddish, blueish, or grey colours, sometimes in a sort of stiff unctuous clay, and sometimes in a black sand. When free from its ore, the metal is close, hard, fusible, ductile into wire, sonorous and elastic. In respect to weight, it is in regard to water as seventy-eight to ten, but to gold as seventy-eight to one hundred ninety-six. The mines are from twelve to fifty, and are very rarely more

than sixty feet deep. The veins, or loads, like those of tin, are of very different dimensions, and their contents of very different natures, which rather than their size determine their value. It is however found by experience, that mixing together ores of very different qualities has very good effects. It is wrought so as to render it fit for use, with much trouble and at no small expense. Some ore is roasted before it can be smelted. This last operation is performed in a large open furnace, the fuel and ore being mixed, and the fire kept to the greatest height by two pair of large bellows moved by a wheel driven by water. When the metal is melted, it is let out of the receivers into a bed of sand, which has one large and several small divisions, in which it lies and cools. The iron in the large division is called a sow, and in the smaller pigs. When the furnace is once charged they keep it continually supplied with ore and fuel, and as occasion requires, let out the metal for several months. In the forest of Dean, the richest ore produces an hard brittle iron, but by mixing slag and cinders therewith, it becomes the toughest and best we have. Pig iron, though metal, and fit for some uses, is not malleable. In order to give the metal that necessary quality, it is carried to the forges, and there heated and hammered in every direction, till the heterogeneous matter being expelled, it is thoroughly incorporated, united, and as the workmen call it welded together. After this it is divided at the flitting mills, and then it is stiled bar iron. The uses of this most valuable metal are by far too many to admit, and too well known to require an explanation here. Steel is made from iron by cementation, and employed in all the finer manufactures, in some of which, by the skill and industry of the artificers, it is raised to a very high value.

After noticing the great utility of iron, Mr. Oddy makes the following important statement and observations. This metal is the most useful of all, not only as applying to such a great variety of purposes, but as being capable to be manufactured to a state seven hundred times more valuable than even gold. It was remarked by an author, even at the beginning of the last century, "that the same quantity of iron stone which, when first taken from its natural bed was not worth five shillings, when made into iron and steel, and then into various manufactures for foreign markets, might in some cases bring home to the value of ten thousand pounds." That iron may by labour be made seven hundred times dearer than standard gold, weight for weight, is no exaggeration. In the making watch springs, six, seven, and eight, will only weigh one grain; the price is from sixpence to one guinea each; but in the very finest work for the very best watches, reckoning only six to a grain, which
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is even too little, then, at a guinea each, iron can be made seven hundred and fifty-six times dearer than gold.

It is astonishing that a material, so truly important, should, without any aid or encouragement from government, except a duty on foreign iron imported, have risen to so high a pitch, whilst others, such as our linens, have had bounties, premiums, and encouragement, and yet have made but little advance, whilst the iron manufactures are extending and increasing in general.

There can be no doubt that iron has been made in England at all times; the Romans had iron works in Gloucestershire, where traces have been found of their forges and utensils. We formerly imported some from Spain, where, in the year 989, there are accounts of the Moors manufacturing it of a most excellent quality.

The first act of parliament in England relative to iron was in 1354, when Edward III. prohibited the exportation, not only of the British made iron, but that which was imported; on account of the high price then paid in England for that article. From that period till about the middle of the 16th century, at one interval, a rage existed, and licences were granted, for transmuting metals into gold and silver; each applicant conceiving that he had found the philosophers' stone. These bubbles, in Henry VI.'s and Edward IV.'s time, no doubt were the means of extending the iron founderies in this country, and they must have considerably increased in that time. In 1581 (Queen Elizabeth's reign) an act passed that no iron works were to be established within twenty-two miles of London, nor within fourteen miles of the Thames; only in some parts in Suffex, and no where near the sea; nor was any wood in those districts to be cut down for making iron. In 1585 another act was passed, that no iron works should be established in Surry, Kent, or Suffex; and no timber, above a certain size, was to be cut down for the purpose of carrying on any iron works.

Notwithstanding several restraints, it was about this time that the importance of this branch of our manufactures began to be felt. In 1630 an act was made prohibiting the importation of foreign wire, woolcards made thereof, and other articles made of foreign wire. It was only sixty-five years before this period, that we used to import these things. The foreign became prohibited; and the English wire, made from the native, "Osmond iron was found the toughest and best." There must, however, have been some defect in the making of iron; for, in 1637, a proclamation was issued that pigs and bars of English made iron should be marked, by the king's surveyors, to prevent the sale of bad iron; and some restrictions were likewise issued relative to cutting wood.

In 1715, in Virginia, in America, pig and bar iron were first made; and in consequence of some regulations relative to naval stores from British America, in 1719, a jealousy was shewn in this country of the iron works establishing in America, and some restrictive clauses were introduced by parliament unfavourable to the works in the colonies. The proprietors of the iron mines at home at this period, in consequence of the claims of the colonists to establish forges and works, seemed to have been a good deal roused, and to have made such representations of the iron trade at home as to give us a pretty correct idea of its state at that period, one which Peter the Great of Russia was likewise pushing in his dominions; so that with Sweden and Russia the iron founders in England had powerful competitors, with America too in view.

In the year following, 1720, some further light was thrown on the iron trade, by a Mr. Wm. Wood, who at that time was the most considerable iron master in Great Britain; who had the mines on the crown lands of thirty-nine counties, and the largest iron works in the kingdom for making bar iron, rolling, flitting, and preparing it for several uses; and furnaces for all articles in which cast iron was then generally used. He states that at this time we used about 30,000 tons of iron annually, of which, for want of cord wood, we were obliged to import about 20,000 tons; and as there was iron-stone enough, and no fuel to work it with, he recommended the planting and raising of coppices on waste and other lands. In short, at that period, our iron masters were much in the same state in England for want of fuel, as the Russian iron masters now find themselves for their works in that empire.

As our true interests began to be seen in giving some protection to the iron founderies in England, which had risen by individual enterprize alone, an act of parliament was passed in 1769 for discontinuing, upon the exportation of iron in foreign ships, the drawbacks of such parts of the duties payable thereon, as exceeded the duties payable upon iron imported in British ships. In this year the importation of iron from Russia alone amounted to upwards of 34,000 tons. To such an extent, through the fostering care first given by Peter the Great, had the iron mines arrived in Russia, that they materially injured the sale of the Swedish, from whence much less than a century before they used to import into Russia. Such are the effects to be produced when governments wisely patronize national objects of improvement and industry.

The American war breaking out, that formidable rival to our iron trade was at an end; soon after the close of that war, the increase of our trade, and the extension of our manufactures, created

created an additional consumption of iron in the country, and although we had powerful competitors in Russia and in Sweden, yet our founderies were producing an annual increase by manufacturing iron with pit coal instead of wood, as heretofore. Before that method was discovered, only 18,000 tons of iron could be produced in these kingdoms; Ireland had already exhausted all her wood for that purpose.

The use of pit coal charred had occasionally been tried for making pig and bar iron, and was first used by a person of the name of Dudley, in Staffordshire, who then made some good iron by that method; but the prejudice against it was so great that it was laid aside, from want of better knowledge at that time in the proper management; nor was it till about forty years ago, that the attempt was again successfully revived by the respectable company of Colebrook-dale, in Salop, who matured the process and brought it to perfection. From this epoch we must date the solid establishment of our iron founderies in this country, which have since increased rapidly. Many people of property began great schemes of iron works, in various parts of Great Britain, for making pig and bar iron with pit coal.

It is stated in 1783, that Ireland made but little bar iron, and that her importation had increased one-third in ten years. The average quantity of iron imported into Ireland for three years ending the 25th of March 1773, was

From Russia and Sweden	-	-	3734 tons
From Great Britain	-	-	2217
			5951 tons.

Average of three years ending 25th March, 1783.

From Russia and Sweden	-	-	4924 tons
From Great Britain	-	-	3736
			8660 tons.

Some founderies were likewise established in Ireland. In the course of nineteen years we find little variation in the quantity of iron imported into Ireland either foreign or British.

For the year ending the 5th January 1802.

Russia, Swedish, Danish, and foreign iron	-	4941 tons
British	-	4512
		9453 tons.

Iron and Hardware rated at 138,941/.

Amongst other curious calculations, in 1783, iron is estimated in what we imported and made from its rough state, through

all its various manufactured branches, to be of the value of 8,700,000 *l.* greatest part of which may be reckoned labour; indeed it is astonishing to see this branch so greatly extended in so short a period; not so much in the rough material as the hardware manufactures at Birmingham and other places, but particularly at Sheffield, so famous for cutlery, where the first knives were made in England, by one Thomas Mathews, of London, in the year 1563, when we imported the greatest part of our manufactured requisites from Flanders and other countries.

It is, however, only within the last ten years, that the iron founderies in these kingdoms have had such a rapid and almost incredible rise; two circumstances have not a little contributed to give us a firm footing in this valuable branch: the first was the error of the Russian government in making a loan bank to accommodate the Russian iron masters, by advancing money on the security of the iron, to compel the English to give them such price as they demanded; and the last, the detention of the British ships and property in the year 1800, which gave a wonderful animation to every capitalist in the iron trade to embark in this lucrative branch.

But the grand increase of iron is in Wales, where, forty years past, no iron was produced, in whose extensive mountains are discovered inexhaustible mines of iron ore, with an unequalled and happy advantage of fuel at the same time. When the Irish propositions were before parliament, in 1786, it was calculated that Great Britain made about 30,000 tons of bar iron; but such has been the increase within the last ten years, that Wales alone produces considerably beyond that quantity, and where two companies who have establishments in London, at this period produce about 18,000 tons of bar iron annually. About seven years ago, the result of an inquiry, instituted by government, was then calculated to be 125 furnaces in Great Britain, supposed to produce 130,000 tons of pig iron; this quantity, by those who have the best means of being informed in the trade, is supposed to be doubled, if not near 300,000 tons throughout the kingdom, in pig, cast, and bar iron; of the last from 80 to 100,000 tons; the whole quantity is almost incredible, but our surprize may cease when we see the uses to which pig or cast iron is now applied for all domestic and other purposes of almost every description. In the neighbourhood of Leeds, even buildings without wood, but iron in its place, to the very window frames, joists, and rafters; upon which plan a very large building is at this time erecting near Bristol, on the Bath road. Railways, pipes, and aqueducts are now formed of cast iron, and indeed every purpose, even to the building of bridges, the structures of two of which, one at Colebrookdale,

dale, and the other at Sunderland, are monuments of national genius and enterprize, not to be equalled by any description in history. The British made bar iron is manufactured at this time at so low a rate as to be sold on the quay at Bristol at little above 14 *l.* per ton; before the present war with France, cargoes of iron in various states were shipped from hence to that country; hoops made of English iron, from its improved manufacture, (which till lately were always made of foreign,) are now sent to Portugal, Madeira, the Mediterranean, as well as British bar iron to Africa, the East Indies, and Ireland, and no doubt it will soon become an article of traffic for America and the whole world, if no casualty nor measures of burden are laid upon it, as the duty on foreign iron and the high price extorted for it abroad, act as a bounty, which it is hoped will be continued till our manufacture is completely secured. The export is rapidly on the rise, which will be demonstrated by the following official value, at the custom house, on the exportation of British bar iron:

1797	-	£13,178	1801	-	£30,018
1798	-	18,888	1802	-	54,969
1799	-	26,902	1803	-	53,304
1800	-	28,514			

Likewise of British iron, wrought, cast, and manufactured into various articles, in the following years:

1797	-	£1,067,691	1801	-	£1,417,715
1798	-	1,069,290	1802	-	1,616,204
1799	-	1,488,074	1803	-	1,218,038
1800	-	1,570,820			

Notwithstanding the almost incredible rapid increase in the production of our own iron, within the last seven years, it must appear rather astonishing that we import so much foreign iron; but this will cease, when we consider our extended foreign commerce, and the prejudice of using foreign iron yet amongst our ship-builders, anchor-smiths, and throughout the navy, as well as for various other purposes. This has caused the foreign iron trade to stand thus, during the last seven years, being the official value, from the custom house, of the imports and exports of foreign iron:

Years.	Imported.	Exported.	Balance.
1797	- £361,322	- 83,301	- £278,021
1798	- 507,840	- 62,844	- 444,996
1799	- 472,732	- 90,604	- 382,128
1800	- 374,949	- 66,775	- 308,174
1801	- 320,609	- 53,191	- 273,418
1802	- 517,269	- 87,822	- 429,447
1803	- 425,205	- 47,471	- 377,734

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So that upon an average, we have for the above seven years consumed in Great Britain, about 43,000 tons of foreign iron annually, which, in its absolute first cost to the individuals, and of course, loss to the nation, is upwards of 700,000 *l.* sterling per annum, which we could instantly produce at home, with infinitely greater facility than any other branch of manufacture we have in the kingdom, and at a considerably less price than we are paying for foreign iron; and, although it is said, we must have some of the very best sorts of foreign iron for particular purposes in our manufactures, it is well known we can make as good iron in this country, with charcoal, for those particular purposes, as any we can import; to be sure, it will cost a little more; but, why not encourage our own manufacture? Why should not the navy and every other department use British made iron, when foreigners already begin, not only to take it, but prefer it?

The Swedish iron is indeed of a superior quality, the materials from which it is made being of the best sort; it is manufactured with skill and care, and formed, with an attention very much to be commended, into all the sizes that are most generally wanted in a material applied to such a variety of purposes, and which is not altered in its form, without considerable labour and difficulty.

Of Russian iron there are now only one or two fabrics, which will be imported at all into this country in a short time.

It is to the great use of machinery that we owe in this country, a superiority; for here, art has completely got the better of natural advantages. The process of making iron, in its first stages, is chiefly chemical: it is by the action of fire on the materials, and so far the Swedes have still the advantage; but to convert iron from this rude and nearly useless state into malleable bars, is an operation performed by mechanical means, and where great force alone can produce any great effect; nor is it sufficient to have rude machinery badly contrived and ill executed, there the friction is great, and the effect produced small. It is in this we excel so much, at least in the proportion of seven to one: for making iron is a more profitable business in England than in Sweden, notwithstanding the natural advantages enjoyed in that country in respect to the business of making iron.

We do not surpass the Swedes in skill in the nature and properties of iron, but in capital and mechanical means.

That some of our iron ore is equal to any in the world, there is no doubt; but it varies in every district here as in other countries, yet the experienced and the well informed in this country say that English iron is, by nature, softer than any foreign

foreign we have imported, except Spanish ; when worked with wood, no iron is so tough as Russia, and the English iron can be made equally as tough ; it is certainly not esteemed so much, when made by cakes of pit coal, but there is a much greater waste of metal in the process ; still very great quantities, of excellent quality, are made with pit coal only, and the iron made with wood charcoal is for particular purposes.

Cast iron wares bear, for exportation, no comparison to bar iron and articles made from it ; but the internal consumption for rail roads, railings, bridges, rafters for houses, and, in short, every other purpose, in objects every moment presenting themselves to our sight, is such, that the quantity may be increased still more ; surely, this is the most flattering prospect for the resources of the kingdom, and may be deemed amongst the first, for it is an article added to the capital of the country, produced by the labour of the people only, from that which costs nothing, and is inexhaustible in the bowels of our native soil.

In the iron trade, the spirit and energy of those who carry it on, is such, that government has not any occasion to interfere with bounties or premiums. The unwise policy of the northern nations in raising the prices, answers every purpose, so that though they have in reality, according to the wages of labour, and value of money, a price equal to three times what we have, they never think of increasing their industry and underselling us, but take always the highest price they can get. When nations act upon the principle of high prices, the consequence is, that others, when the article is such as they can produce, take as little from them as possible, and endeavour to supply themselves ; and, as soon as they are able to do so, they import no more from those avaricious unwise people ; when, on the contrary, nations, where the value of money is great, can undersell and do so, then others take from them all they can get, and only manufacture for themselves enough to supply the deficiency. Thus it is, that if Sweden and Russia had kept the prices as low as they were twenty years ago, we should take from them all we could, and only make enough at home to supply the deficiency ; but, as it is, we make all we can, and our works are daily increasing, while we take from them only enough to satisfy the demand which we are not yet able to do ourselves.

Our iron masters may, however, expect that when those countries find we will not purchase any more from them, they will reduce the price, which it is in their power very easily to do ; it will then become the business of the legislature to protect our home manufactures of iron, by a duty that will compensate
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for the reduction of price that they will make, so soon as they find that they must either do that or lose the market.

So firmly is the iron manufacture established in this country, and so greatly extending, that we shall shortly be general exporters; indeed, British bar iron might now be exported to Sweden and Russia at less prices, including freight and insurance, than they insisted upon having a few years back, in the first cost, from us. In 1804, the importation of iron into Britain, from Russia, was not a fifth of the preceding year, so that the iron proprietors of Russia will have to lament extorting such high prices from the English, and struggling so hard to have a loan bank to enforce. It would be a pity to quit this subject without observing how much the prosperity of nations depends on wise policy, which is always connected with moderation, and paying due attention to circumstances; by due attention, we mean neither negligence on the one hand, nor being too eager to grasp on the other. In the time of Louis XIV. when Colbert was minister, we have seen how France, by being too tenacious, lost the superiority in the manufacture of watches, glass, paper, and cutlery, and many other articles. Sweden, using similar power about pitch and tar, lost that trade; and the northern powers follow still the same measures, excluding English manufactures, and keeping up the price of their own. England seized wisely, and with success, the moment to rival France and Sweden; let her do so now with iron, fisheries, and every thing else that the circumstances will admit, and she will place her prosperity on a basis much more certain and permanent than that on which it now stands.

TIN. Tin was in very ancient times a known and celebrated production of Britain, and according to some, the origin of the name by which the country was distinguished, *Barat Anac*, its supposed first name, signifying, *Ager Stanni*, or a land of Tin. Mines of tin first rendered the Scilly Isles, then Devonshire and Cornwall, famous; to which last county they are now chiefly confined. Tin, though in itself the lightest in its ore, is the heaviest of metals. It is very seldom, if ever, found pure, and the appearances of its ore are very different. The finest and richest are styled tin grains, or corns of tin, being crystals of a black colour of different sizes. It is also found in a heavy black stone, sometimes in a more porous yellow coloured stone, and is commonly intermixed with spar, arsenic, lead, and other bodies. As a metal it is white, shining, melts with a gentle heat; ductile, so as to spread under the hammer into leaf, which iron and copper will not do; yet cannot be drawn into wire as those metals may. It is not sonorous in itself, and

yet makes other metals so, when mixed with them. In point of gravity, it is as seven to one, in respect to water, and as seven to nineteen in regard to gold. Tin mines are generally found on the sides of hills, though veins sometimes pass through vallies or brooks between two hills, and are followed to the opposite hill. They work with infinite difficulty through hard rocks, to the depth of from three to seventy fathoms; and the labour is no less troublesome than dangerous, where the earth is loose and apt to crumble. Great quantities of timber are consumed in these subterraneous works, which are freed from water by the help of fire engines, and other contrivances. The veins are of uncertain thickness, from three inches to three feet. Tin grains or corns of tin, yield five parts in eight of metal; whereas tin stones yield only from one in thirty, to one in sixty, and to one in a hundred and twenty, for even these are wrought to some small profit. The ore when collected is broke, washed, stamped by mills, and otherwise treated to fit it for the melting house, which is called dressing; except the tin grains which need no such preparation; after melting, it is called *black tin*; but before it can be exposed to sale it is carried to one of the five coinage towns, where after examination of a piece that is broke from a corner of the block, the arms of the Duchy of Cornwall are impressed with a hammer, and then it is called white tin. The duty on coinage, which is four shillings on the hundred weight, belongs to the Prince of Wales as Duke of Cornwall, and produces a great revenue. The uses of tin are many; it is sometimes given in medicine; preparations from it are employed as cosmetics; it is used in varnishing earthen ware; in conjunction with mercury it makes the foilage spread on the back of looking glasses; amalgamated with quicksilver, sulphur, and sal ammoniac, it produces the mosaic gold; the calx polishes glass, steel, &c. the compound calx is what we call putty*; it is also used in solder: Another manner in which it is used in this and in other countries, is what is called tinning, by which copper vessels are rendered neater in appearance, and safer in use. When applied on thin plates of iron, it becomes fit for many uses, and furnishes a variety of handsome and wholesome utensils; it enters into the composition of bell metal, of printers' types, and to it are due the elegance, hardness, and beauty of our pewter. The deep ruby colour extracted from gold used by painters in enamel, is made by precipitating the solution of that metal in Aqua Regia, with calx of tin, and in this respect it is highly useful in striking all scarlet dyes.

Notwithstanding the copious production of tin in England; the tin plates were long imported from Germany. Andrew

* This is not the painters or glaziers putty, but a powder of calcined tin, used in giving the last polish to fine works in steel, &c.

Yarranton, in a work entitled *England's Improvement by Sea and Land*, (2 Vol. 4to. 1681) asserts that tin plates (*i. e.* iron plates tinned over) were made in England through his means, he having been employed by some gentleman to go to Bohemia, where he learned the manner of making them. When he returned home, he set proper persons to work, who made better than any he had seen abroad, the metal being better, and the plates more pliable; but a patent being obtained by some great man at court, who had discovered the scheme, for the sole making of them, that manufacture was dropped by his employers, who had with so much charge made the discovery. The art thus said to have been imported remained for many years unpractised in England, insomuch, that among the bubbles of the year 1720, this was one; yet, since that time, the manufacture of tinned plates is brought to greater perfection in England than in any other part of the world. In 1740 it was observed that few tin plates were imported from foreign parts: our own being now made of a finer gloss or skin than that manufactured beyond sea; that being hammered, and ours being drawn under a rolling mill. This improvement is a considerable benefit to the nation in the general annual balance of trade; a great quantity of this article being consumed in Britain, Ireland and the plantations. That which is called japanned tin, and the manufacture of Pont-y-Pool are brought to unrivalled perfection, not only exhibiting the richest and gayest tints of colouring, but pictures exquisite in design, masterly in execution, and durable as the metal on which they are displayed.

COPPER. Copper is plentifully found in all the British territories; yet, though long known before, our mines were not wrought to any great purpose till the eighteenth century. Lately, indeed, the produce has surpassed all previous calculation, in consequence of the discovery of the treasure contained in the famous Paris mountain in Anglesea. This metal is sometimes found pure, or very nearly so, and that in so large pieces as to make it necessary to break them in the mine before they can be conveniently raised; but in general, like other metals, involved in stony crusts of all colours, and even many of these are beautifully blended together, whence the ore receives the name of the peacock's tail. This stony ore is so intimately mixed with, and adheres so closely to, the metal, that it is extremely difficult to separate them, which is one principal cause of the dearness of copper. This metal is of a bright orange red, close, hard, malleable, ductile into wire, sonorous, and elastic; and is not only wrought on by all solvents, but even by water, which makes it very apt to rust. In point of gravity, it is as nine to one in respect to water, and in regard to gold as nine to nineteen. The mines are wrought to a great depth, sometimes to
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more than a hundred fathoms, often through a very hard rock, and consequently with much labour and a vast expense. The separating the metal from the ore is a very arduous and intricate operation; for first it is broken to pieces in the mine, then raised, ranged according to its sizes, washed, picked, stamped, and sorted. When brought to the melting house, it is first roasted, next stamped again, and then melted, when it is styled red copper, and having still heterogeneous substances mixed with it, melted over again perhaps more than once, and then it is styled black copper; if it is suspected to hold silver, as it frequently does, it is returned to the furnace, where a proportion of lead is added, and then it is exposed only to such a degree of heat as is sufficient to melt the lead, which attracts and carries away the silver, leaving the block of copper honey-combed. This is afterwards melted, and becomes at last what is called rose copper, that is, perfectly fine and pure. The uses of this metal, like those of iron, are too numerous to be inserted here; it may be sufficient to observe, that its malleability, flexibility, ductility, and elasticity, render it fit almost for every thing to which metal can be applied. Besides it is to be remembered, that from copper brass is made, and thence all the numberless articles that are manufactured for public and private use, from our heavy artillery down to the furniture of the kitchen, and, which occasions no small consumption, drawn into wire for pins.

The mine in Anglesea demands particular notice. The name of the place, in which it subsists, the Paris mountain, is supposed to be derived from the old Welch word, "*Praos*," signifying "*brass*," which might easily be corrupted into Paris. The copper mines in this part of the island are supposed to have been known and worked by the Romans; a pool on the top of the mountain having been distinguished, long before the present works were formed, by the name of the Mine Pool. The mine of this mountain is considerably more than a mile in circumference, and on an average 1300 men are constantly employed in it. It has the singular advantage of being worked in the open air; a circumstance which expedites the labour, and secures the health of those employed. Abundance of vitriolic water is found in these works, which is so strong as instantaneously to turn whatever steel or iron is dipped into it, to the colour and appearance of copper: This water is exposed to the sun in large open troughs, and the copper quality is extracted from it by a curious process. Great quantities of sulphur are also produced, and its sublimation is carried on in various spots upon the mountain, till at last the whole is collected into large boiling houses, and formed into rolls of brimstone. The copper
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ore is then carried down to melting houses, constructed in the valley below, near the sea side, where every remaining operation is performed with wonderful art and assiduity. Copper, in consequence of the discovery of this mine, is exported in such vast quantities, that it is affirmed that a discontinuance of working it for a single week would raise the price throughout Europe.

LEAD. Lead is a metal for which this island was always famous. Our mines were very probably wrought by the Britons, but certainly by the Romans; and one of their most learned writers has assured us, that the produce was so great as to render it necessary to fix the quantity that should be raised. The Saxons followed their example, and indeed our lead mines were in all ages amongst the acknowledged sources of our national wealth, and so they still remain. This metal is very abundant in South Britain, North Britain, Ireland, and the adjacent isles. The ore appears in many different forms, and thence receives several names. Sometimes from its colour, it is styled grey, blue, or white ore: sometimes from its texture, it is called springy, steel grained, and cross grained ore; and sometimes from its position, flat, plated, or bellied ore; but the most common, is the diced, cubic, or tessellated ore. In some places it has been found so free from spar, or other heterogeneous matter, as to be almost pure, and this is called naked ore, and is very rich. Lead, when refined, is the softest of all metals, smooth, ductile, and little, if at all, sonorous or elastic. It is, in reference to water, as eleven to one, and in respect to gold, as eleven to nineteen. Mines of lead are commonly on the declivity of hills, and those in this country are wrought from ten to seventy fathoms deep, cut with much labour and no small charge. The veins are very irregular, sometimes a few inches only, and sometimes several feet in extent. The ore is also sometimes forced out of the lead and found loose in pretty considerable quantities, and at some distance.

The operation of separating the metal from the ore is likewise attended with trouble and expense, though with less in both than tin, iron, or copper. In the first place it is broke and beat to pieces, next washed in a running stream, then passed through iron sieves, and lastly carried to the furnace. This is placed on a hearth of clay or iron stone, on which a fire is made with charcoal, and maintained with small wood. The ore is thrown on this fire, and, as the metal melts, it runs down into a receptacle prepared for it; thence, while liquid, it is lifted out in an iron ladle red hot, and being cast into a bed of sand it becomes, when cold, what they call a pig of lead. There is a wide difference in the nature and value of ores, for some yield but thirty-five and others eighty pounds of metal from one hundred of

of ore; but if they yield less than thirty-five, they are not thought worth the working, unless the ore is also known to hold silver. In fact, almost all British lead holds silver, more or less; but seldom in sufficient quantity to defray the expense of extracting it; some lead yields thirty ounces of silver in a ton, some eighteen, and some only four ounces. The ores richest in lead, hold no silver at all worth extracting.

To enumerate all uses to which this metal is applied, either manufactured by itself, or in composition with other metals, would require a separate treatise. From lead some other substances are produced, which, from the large consumption of them, may be regarded as of great value. Ceruse, or white lead, which is made by exposing thin plates of this metal to the fumes of vinegar, which is the basis of several kinds of paint, serves for many other purposes, and is also of some use in surgery. There is likewise a very beautiful colour made from the calx of lead, which passes under the name of yellow ochre. Add to these minium or red lead, which is obtained by giving and continuing a certain high degree of heat to the calx of lead, in a reverberatory furnace. It is in great use as a fine red pigment, enters into the composition of desiccative plaisters; and is a capital article in the commerce of the Levant. Lead has always been a very considerable article of exportation.

Of other metals of inferior importance, it is not necessary here to speak, nor of those which are not produced in Great Britain, further than to observe, that the goldsmiths and silversmiths of this country have ever been, and are still highly celebrated for their exquisite workmanship, and are frequently employed on large foreign orders.

GLASS. This useful and beautiful material is formed from the most ordinary substances, the ashes of plants and sand or pebbles. The manufacture was early known in England, but appears to have been first seriously pursued in 1557. In 1670, manufacturers were procured from Venice to teach the art of making the finer glass, and their imperfect instructions were greatly improved by the French refugees in 1685. At this day, no country in the world excels Great Britain in the manufacture of ordinary and flint glass. In plate glass, considerable progress has been made, but finer specimens are still to be procured from France.

In 1773 a society was incorporated for twenty-one years, by the name of *The Governor and Company of British Cast Plate Glass Manufacturers*, for the purpose of carrying on and improving the manufactory, by a joint stock of eighty shares of 500*l.* each, and they established themselves in Lancashire. This undertaking, although the excellence of its wares was much extolled, does

not appear to have been very prosperous, since, in 1785, the proprietors, applying to parliament, complained that they had never been able to pay any dividend, though they had expended 100,000 *l.*; and they prayed that they might at least be relieved from paying duty on the waste glass. In 1798, it appears that they had brought that branch of manufacture to great perfection; but in so doing they had sunk their own capital, and also borrowed 67,535 *l.* 8*s.* for carrying on their business, for payment of which they had been compelled to sell their property to some persons, who carried on the manufacture under the act till its expiration, and afterwards as a private company. The manufacture being beneficial to the public, the present proprietors were incorporated for twenty-one years. Their capital is not to exceed 100,000 *l.* in which is included that of the former company, now vested in the new corporation; and they are enabled to hold lands and tenements not exceeding 1,000 *l.* per annum, make bye laws, &c. They may dissolve themselves at any time, by consent of a majority holding 700 shares, on giving six months notice in the Gazette. Their property is also protected by some particular statutes, as has been noticed under the head Criminal Law.

EARTHEN WARE. By progressive improvement, but chiefly by the ingenuity and industry of one individual, earthen ware or pottery, from being an article of importation, is become a very important object of export trade. Of the advance of this great natural benefit, the following account is given by Mr. Macpherson. The north part of Staffordshire, abounding with coal, and its usual attendant, strong fire clay, has certainly been the seat of manufactories of earthen ware for several centuries. When Dr. Plott wrote his Natural History of Staffordshire in the year 1686, the manufacture was confined to coarse butter pans, and such ware, the sale of which extended no farther than they could be carried on the backs of the workmen or hawkers. About the beginning of the eighteenth century the discovery of a fine bed of red earth at Bradwell induced two brothers of the name of Eiers to come from Holland and settle there: and they may be considered as the first improvers of the pottery. They made a fine kind of red porcelain in imitation of the oriental; and they introduced the art of glazing earthen ware by throwing common salt into the oven at the time of its highest ignition; but the clouds of smoke, raised by this operation, gave such offence to the neighbourhood, that they were obliged to leave the country; and, it is believed, they removed to Ireland. The clays of Staffordshire are not fit for making white earthen ware: but the ingenuity of the manufacturers has discovered various improvements and combinations of the different substances, which

which have enabled them to produce from their own clays several species of earthen ware, still beyond the reach of foreign competition. The pipe clay of Devonshire was also carried to Staffordshire, and formed the basis of a white earthen ware, which was soon after much improved by the accidental discovery of the use of calcined flint. These improvements produced a stronger and more agreeable species of goods, known for many years by the name of *white stone ware*, which was glazed with salt in the manner introduced by the Elers, the neighbours no longer complaining of the nuisance of the smoke. This ware came into very general use all over the country; and some of it was exported; but still great quantities of finer and more elegantly formed earthen ware were imported from France and Holland for the tables of the wealthy.

Such was the state of the manufacture, when Mr. Josiah Wedgwood in 1763 produced a kind of cream-coloured earthen ware, superior in texture and durability to the French and Dutch, more capable of bearing the sudden changes of heat and cold, and covered with a brilliant and impenetrable glazing, which could be furnished at a moderate expense. The tide of public taste immediately turned; foreign earthen wares were discarded; English wares were used in every house in the kingdom, and began to be exported to the very countries from which earthen ware had hitherto been brought; and the foreign manufactures, unable to stand the competition, declined, or were abandoned.

Mr. Wedgwood, who, with the diligence of the manufacturer, possessed the science and unwearied perseverance of the experimental philosopher, not satisfied with having added a most important article of universal use to the manufactures of the country, (for the quantity made before his improvement, compared with that made since, may be reckoned as nothing,) introduced many new species of porcelain of various colours and sorts, of which are made an infinite variety of ornamental works, comprehending cameos, intaglios, bas-reliefs, medallions, tablets, small statues, busts, seals, &c. the matter of which is so hard, and so qualified to resist the action of fire and acids, that it promises to remain, after time shall have destroyed pictures, and even marbles and bronzes, an unperishing monument, to hand down to the latest posterity the immortal fame of the inventor, along with that of the characters represented on it. The fortunate circumstance of Sir William Hamilton bringing over from Italy his admired collection of antique vases also opened a new field to his imitative powers, and he soon rendered their beautiful forms familiar in this country, instead of being confined to the knowledge of the few who could have access to

see originals. He, moreover, discovered the art of painting on vases, &c. without any gloss, in the manner of the ancient Etruscans, which, according to Mr. D. Hancarville, (in his dissertation on Sir William Hamilton's Museum) has been lost ever since the age of Pliny: and his productions in this class have even a superiority over the Etruscan vases, as they add to the beauty of design, the advantages of light and shade in all the variety of colours. His porcelain mortars, harder and more impenetrable than marble or metal, and his pyrometers for determining the degree of heat in very strong fires, deserve the gratitude of all who are interested in medicinal and chemical operations. Nor must his improved ink pots, though trifling in point of price, be forgotten, as they are valuable to all who wish to preserve the points of their pens from being spoiled, and their fingers from being daubed with ink. For the sake of connection, he adds, I shall here give a brief account of the improved state of the earthen ware manufacture, chiefly extracted from Mr. Wedgwood's own evidence, given before the committee of the House of Commons in May 1785. From fifteen to twenty thousand persons are employed in the potteries: and much greater numbers are employed in digging coals for them, and in various distant parts of the kingdom, and even in Ireland, in raising and preparing the clay and flint, whereof fifty or sixty thousand tons are annually conveyed to Staffordshire by coasting and inland navigation, which gives employment not only to coasting vessels and canal barges, but also to vessels belonging to the Newfoundland fishery during the months that they used to be laid up idle. Vast numbers are also employed in carrying the goods, when manufactured, to every part of Great Britain for home consumption, and for exportation. Though many of the states of Europe have prohibited the admission of British earthen ware, and others have loaded it with intolerable duties, yet five-sixths of the quantity made are exported; and scarcely a vessel sails from any port of Great Britain without carrying less or more of this cheap and universally useful article, the great bulk of which, in comparison with its price, renders it a most important object in respect to freightage, as every ton in weight of the raw material becomes three or four tons in measurement, when shipped in its finished state. To this account of the great increase of the manufacture Mr. Wedgwood added, that he conceived it to be still in its infancy, in comparison of what it may be, if it is not interrupted in its growth. The manufacture has still continued to increase, and has spread over a district in the north part of Staffordshire of about nine miles in extent, the whole of which is now so covered with manufactories and dwelling houses, that it has the appearance of one large scattering

scattering town, and is accordingly called in the neighbourhood by the name of the *Pottery*, though including several towns and villages. Earthen ware is also made in imitation of Mr. Wedgwood's manner in many other parts of Great Britain, and in Ireland, and also in several parts of the continent of Europe. Thus are the meanest materials, clay and flint stones, converted into objects of the greatest utility and beauty, and become the means of giving employment to a prodigious number of people with the greatest possible national advantage, (for the whole value of the earthen ware of every kind is the price of labour paid to our own people,) and of opening a new and extensive field of commerce of the most beneficial kind to the kingdom. For all these blessings Great Britain is indebted to the genius, the elegant taste, the science and the perseverance, of Mr. Wedgwood, whose memory ought to be held in honour by all concerned in the landed or commercial interests, or who wish well to the general prosperity, of Great Britain.

Beside those enumerated, the inland trade of England furnishes many extensive heads of commerce from which great emoluments are derived, but which it is not necessary here to describe. Such are the trades in coals, corn, cattle, and hops; the brewery, distillery, tobacco and snuff, and many other trades, and the manufacture of coaches, engines, clocks and watches, the construction of mills, the building of houses, and innumerable other means which industry and invention afford for the employment of capital.

FISHERY. On this most important subject to British commerce, the following observations are offered by Mr. Oddy. In every country where the coasts lay favourably for the fisheries, their encouragement has been found to be an object of high importance; it increases the quantity of food, it brings up a hardy race of people, and it is a great source of wealth, by supplying such nations as have not themselves the means of catching fish. To Britain, which is an island circumscribed in extent, and therefore limited in point of subsistence and population (which depends on the means of subsistence), the encouragement of fisheries is a peculiar object of importance, and ought to be one of particular solicitude. Its defence too, in time of war, depending on its naval power, increases the importance of that source of wealth; and therefore, in more views than one, the fisheries are fit objects for public bounties.

Dr. Adam Smith, whose views on subjects of political economy have been allowed to be in general good; and who, if in error in any leading principle, it is in wishing governments to interfere as little as possible in trade and commerce, allows that fisheries are an exception, that their encouragement is a

national benefit, and therefore their extension ought to be an object for bounties and encouragement, at the expense of the public. The great floating capitals of merchants, which are ready to occupy themselves on any branch of trade that seems advantageous, and is merely moveable, (that is to say, where to buy, sell, or carry, is all the business,) very quickly occupy and seize on every new channel; but it is not so with fishing; merchants will, indeed, vest their capitals in purchases of fish that are cured, or of oil, or other produce arising from fisheries; but they will not invest their capitals either in fishing or curing, and unless they are caught and cured ready, they cannot be purchased. But without capital, fisheries cannot be extended suddenly, and we, at this time in particular, require to make a great and a sudden effort; but the manner of making it is the question.

Joint stock companies, for the purpose of fishing, have seldom answered, and they never can answer any great purpose; neither will any great, complicated, or difficult plan succeed; it must be something simple, and that will facilitate and encourage the labour of the poor individual fisherman.

It is into the mode of doing this to the most advantage that we are to inquire; but, before we inquire into particular circumstances, let us take a view of the general nature of the case.

In the first place, unless fish can be cured at a reasonable price, the catching them will be to little purpose. The price of salt is the thing that renders that easy or difficult. Unless the poor fishermen can have boats and other implements, they cannot employ their industry, and these are expensive tools. Manufactures never flourished in this or in any country till a mode has been found out, of the rich furnishing expensive tools to the poor. In furnishing the means to pay for these tools, some certain mode of repayment or security was expected or devised. With immoveable property this matter is simple and easy; but with property that is liable to be lost, destroyed, or carried away, there are difficulties in the nature of the thing; it is then for the intelligence of man to remove or overcome the difficulties.

A government finds it impracticable to enter into the details necessary to aid individuals, where there are risks and hazards to run, and where there is room not only for mismanagement, but for fraud, both on the part of the individuals to be assisted, and the agents employed to give the assistance. In this case, an intermediate person should be employed, who should secure the government from risk, and find, in his vigilance in looking after the property, a reward for his trouble. All the attempts
hitherto

hitherto made to aid and increase our fisheries, have been made upon a wrong principle ; and one which, from its nature, could not succeed. They ought not to discourage us, or lead to the conclusion, that aid cannot effectually and advantageously be given : past experience ought not to discourage us, unless we find that the difficulties arise from the nature of things, and not from the manner in which the attempt has been made. To encourage poor men to work, furnish them with the necessary implements ; though boats and nets are not very expensive, they are far too much so for the fishermen who use them to purchase. Next to the production of grain, certainly the fisheries require our particular care and attention, not only as an article of food and traffic, but as a nursery for producing hardy and robust seamen, ready at all times to man our fleets, and fight our battles.

The former difficulties relative to our fisheries, appear, by the present political state of Europe, to be done away, and if we do not take proper measures to promote them at the present opportunity, (advantages which combined circumstances have given us at this moment,) it is our own faults.

The Greenland fishery of England has been upon the decline, whilst that of Scotland has been upon the advance the last five years, and the Southern whale fishery is stationary : the great and increasing importation of tallow, the depreciation in the price of whalebone, and the impress of seamen in the time of war, have all tended to cause the falling off in the Greenland fishery. That of the South Sea is encouraged by high bounties, yet still it has not increased, though it has been prevented from decay. With respect to our home fisheries, the field is wide, and the prospect highly promising, if we only embrace the opportunity, we may nearly get this trade into our own hands. As so many volumes have been written on the fisheries, and the government of this country has shown sufficient inclination to encourage them, it will be sufficient to point out how that may be done.

A bounty offered to a poor man to produce an article he has not the means of producing, is useless. Instead then of giving bounties for fish caught on the coast, let boats be constructed and let out under the direction of the minister and elders of the parish in Scotland, or those who manage the poor in England, and let the sum they are to pay be just sufficient for interest, tear and wear, &c. Being insured against the risk of the sea, the vessel never can remain unaccounted for, and the sum paid will be sufficient to replace it, when worn out by regular use. There are not two hundred parishes in Scotland that touch the coast, and probably 200 *l.* in each, on the average, might be sufficient, and put in activity 20,000 people in this

beneficial enterprise; and this sum might properly be applied under the responsibility of each parish, the officers of whom, or those who have the direction, should be bound to see to its proper application.

The taking off the duty on salt would be the next thing necessary, and the way to do that, without hurting the revenue materially, would be by allowing those who wanted salt to cure fish to have the quantity necessary, duty free, on giving a bond on unstamped paper, to cure the quantity of fish, return the salt, or pay the duty. This would do ten times better than a drawback, which does not prevent the necessity of an advance of money, though it afterwards repays it. In fishing and curing fish, the business is to enable people who live on the coast to do it with advantage and with little capital, for men who have capital seek easier employments. The utility of fisheries, for procuring food, and as a nursery for seamen, has been often mentioned, but let us consider the necessity of keeping in the country part of those immense sums that go to Russia for tallow, and we shall see a farther reason for this encouragement. We cannot produce more tallow than we do at present, without growing more butchers' meat, and that is out of the question, (doing it on purpose,) and we cannot diminish the consumption by any other means to a considerable extent, but by increasing the quantity of oil and reducing its price.

Taking the subject of fisheries in every view, then, they deserve encouragement, and this mode appears to be the best, even if the revenue should suffer a little, and if some trouble should be given to those who have the care of letting out boats and nets. No good is attained without some evil, and no advantage obtained without trouble and pains; and surely, these regulations are much less complicated or difficult to execute than many of the laws about permits and licences under the excise and customs.

SOCIETY FOR FISHERIES. On the whole, although the encouragement given to fisheries, especially on the British coasts, may not have equalled the sanguine, and perhaps just expectations of commercial writers, the subject has frequently engaged the attention of the legislature, and has been the occasion of a most respectable, though not hitherto very prosperous association. In 1786, a number of noblemen and gentlemen were incorporated by the style of *The British Society for extending the Fisheries and improving the Sea-coasts of this Kingdom*. The end and purpose of their incorporation is declared to be the erection of free towns and villages, harbours and fishing stations, in the Highlands and islands of North Britain, for the improvement of fisheries, agriculture, manufactures, and other useful objects of industry,

industry, in that part of the kingdom, where the dispersed situation of the inhabitants has hitherto impeded their exertions; it being hoped, that the towns will become nurseries of seamen for the defence of the kingdom, and put a stop to the dangerous spirit of emigration. The company are invested with the usual privileges and powers of a joint stock company; and persons who may be incapacitated by entails, minority, &c. are empowered to sell lands to them. Their stock is divided into shares of 50*l.* each, and no one is permitted to hold above ten shares. It is transferable by purchase, gift, &c.: but the subscribers were restrained from making any sales of stock before the 10th of August 1789. In 1795, some doubts respecting their right to make purchases in Scotland were removed by act of Parliament. In 1797 they had formed three establishments. 1. At Ullapool, in Loch Broom, on the west coast of Rossshire, the most regular and constant resort of the herrings on the British coast. This village in 1791 had seven houses, and in 1796 it had thirty-nine (whereof nine belong to the Society), and about forty thatched huts. Ten vessels cleared out for the bounty of fishing in 1796. Their barrels and nets were partly made upon the spot. The Society have built houses for smoking herrings, and a shed for the cod fishery. 2. At Tobermory, at the north end of the island of Mull, which has the advantage of a sheltered harbour, accessible with every wind by vessels of any burthen; and there is plenty of stone and wood for building. It has a custom house, at which 38 small vessels, measuring 1,589 tons, entered inward, and 55, measuring 1,822 tons, entered outward. In 1792 there were 27 families, and in 1797 there were 47. And 3 at Lochbay, in the north-west part of the island of Skie. At each of these places the Society purchased sufficient tracts of land, and laid out the ground in proper streets for building. They have also erected a quay or pier, a custom-house, a store-house, a school, and a house for a schoolmaster, bridges where necessary, and have made roads, at every village. Many inclosures were made, and also considerable improvements in agriculture, where no improvements were ever known before. The Society held out particular encouragement to the trades which are connected with fisheries and navigation; and those sequestered regions have for the first time (at least for several centuries by past) seen vessels fitted out from their harbours, and something like a commencement of prosperity produced by industry.

All the settlements are near to excellent fishing banks, where cod and ling are in great plenty, so that the settlers need never be at a loss for a steady, and nearly invariable, species of fishery to employ themselves and their vessels. The representations of
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of the directors of the society procured from government some small mitigation of the rigour of the execution of the salt laws in favour of their settlers. But as that is matter of favour, it may be withdrawn at pleasure. The most solid advantage in that respect to the poor fishers was, that some people, partly assisted with small sums lent them by the society, laid in stores of salt, casks, and other fishing utensils, which they sell to their neighbours at moderate prices. But, from the very slow growth of the villages, there is reason to apprehend, that the fisheries, restricted as they are, can never afford any very flattering prospects to the people. In 1799, the governors and directors were empowered to give certain premiums, but these measures are deemed insufficient, and none is considered adequate to the full promotion of this great national concern, but a solemn and definitive repeal of all duties on salt. Should this in happier days of finance be effected, very great results to the wealth and strength of the nation are prognosticated.

FAIRS AND MARKETS. Great facilities are afforded to internal commerce in England by the establishment of fairs and markets for the sale of commodities of every description. The institution of fairs is not peculiar to England, although in this country, both fairs and markets have met with great encouragement. They were established for the better regulation of trade and commerce, and also for the convenience of the king's subjects, both natives and foreigners, in obtaining supplies of every kind. The king is the sole judge where fairs and markets ought to be kept; and therefore if he grants a market to be established in a place, which happens not to be convenient for the country, yet the subjects can go to no other; and if they do, the owner of the vill where they meet is liable to an action at the suit of the grantee of the market. But if no place be limited for keeping a fair by the king's grant, the grantees may keep it where they please, or rather where they can most conveniently; and if it be so limited, they may keep it in what part of such a place they will. The law forbids the holding of markets and fairs on Sundays, and the solemn holidays, and declares that they shall not be kept open beyond the time specified in their charters, on pain of forfeiting double the value of the things sold. The grant of a fair or market, includes, without express words, the right of establishing a court of *pie-poudré*, and of appointing a clerk of the market, who is to receive reasonable fees for marking and allowing weights and measures.

Toll payable at a fair or market is a reasonable sum of money due to the owner of the fair or market, upon the sale of things, or for stallage, piccage or the like. Piccage is money paid

paid for leave to dig the ground to erect a stall. Stallage is money paid for leave to erect a stall, or to remove it from one part of the fair to another.

For the encouragement of trade, and to render contracts in fairs and markets secure, by the common law, every sale made in a fair, or market overt, transfers a complete property in the thing sold to the purchaser; so that however injurious or illegal the title of the seller may be, yet the buying is good against all men. This rule however is to be understood with such limitations and exceptions as insure publicity in sales, and prevent fraud and collusion between buyers and sellers. The city of London is a market overt every day in the week except Sundays, so that a sale on any of those days has the same effect as if on a fair or market day in another place. And in London, every shop in which goods are exposed publickly to sale, is market overt, for such things as the owner professes to trade in; but in the country, the market-overt is confined to the particular place or spot of ground set apart by custom for the sale of goods. However, where the transaction is perfectly fair on the part of the purchaser, though the dealing is out of the precincts of London, great allowances are made in analogy to the above mentioned customs. Therefore, it seems, the property of goods may be changed, and effectually transferred to the buyer by a *bonâ fide* sale, in a shop out of London, and that, whether the shopkeeper is the seller or buyer, if the goods are of the kind in which he trades.

Markets are of such great and general utility that they can neither be disused, nor in any degree superseded. Fairs are of less importance than formerly, because the traders in large towns have established agents called *riders*, who travel from place to place throughout the kingdom, and receive the orders of country shopkeepers, who have consequently no occasion to expend their money at fairs. These meetings are, however, in no danger of being abolished; a customary, though not necessarily attendant circumstance, is the exhibition of plays, drolls, rarities, and a general merriment, which render them the delight of the people throughout the realm, and establishments so popular, and so productive of honest joy, will never be discountenanced by a wise legislature, although excesses may be restricted by a vigilant magistracy.

CONVEYANCE. The internal trade of England is also greatly improved by the speed, safety and cheapness with which goods and persons may be conveyed from one part of the kingdom to another. The cheapness is not to be estimated by the rate per mile at which travelling by land can be performed, (though even that, in comparison with other necessities and conveniences of life,

life, is considerable,) but by the extraordinary dispatch and absolute safety with which journeys are performed. These favourable circumstances are owing both to the constitution and police of the country. The spirit of freedom which pervades all the social establishments of Great Britain, exempts travellers from the delay and inconvenience occasioned by passports, identification of person at walled or garrison towns, the frequent inspection of goods, and the many other vexations and charges to which in other countries the people are subjected. And as the law affures to every man means of redress in case of robbery or maltreatment, he who travels relies with confidence on that protection, and without waiting for, or incurring the expense of a military escort, proceed with the aid only of a guard, hired by the proprietors of the vehicle which conveys him, or depending in a private carriage on such means as he himself happens to have provided. Feeble as these resources may seem, it is an indisputable fact, that in England, in proportion to the frequency of travelling and the value of property transported from place to place, less is lost by robbery, than in almost any other country. On the other hand, such is the swiftness with which journies are performed, that without taking into calculation the value of time, the benefit of frequent and easy intercourse, or the value of money, it may safely be said, that long journies may now be made at an expense actually smaller than they could one hundred years ago. In treating of the conveyance from one part of the kingdom to another, several particulars demand notice.

POST-HORSES AND STAGE-COACHES. Besides the mail coaches for conveyance of letters and passengers, stage-coaches are established, which travel from and to all parts of the kingdom, carrying persons and goods, at a certain fixed rate. These vehicles perform their journies with undeviating constancy, are furnished, at stated places, with relays of horses, and meals are provided for the passengers, at a limited price, at the inns where they stop in the course of the day. Post-chaises do not perform stated journies, but are required according to the occasion of the traveller, and make their journies with greater or less dispatch in proportion to the number of horses by which they are drawn.

All these conveyances produce a considerable revenue to government. Those who let post horses take out an annual licence on a five shilling stamp, and on every horse let out by them is charged a duty of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per mile, or if the distance is not ascertained $1s. 9d.$ in the whole. For prevention of the evasion of these duties, many judicious regulations are framed, and both the duty on post horses, and those on stage coaches are let to

farm, in separate districts, and by public bidding. The keepers of stage-coaches are, in like manner, obliged to take out an annual five shilling licence, declaring from what place, and to what place such carriage is intended to be used, distinguishing the number of miles between the two extreme towns or places, and the number of journies intended to be made either in the day or week; and they give bond to his majesty in 20*l.* or treble the sum the duty for the journies inserted in such licence for one month would amount to, at the option of the commissioners, for accounting for and paying such sums as may be due for such journies. For preventing the great mischiefs which have frequently arisen from an improper number of persons being allowed to go as passengers on the roofs or boxes of coaches, chaises, and other carriages, if the driver of any such carriage shall suffer more than *six* persons at the same time to ride or go upon the roof, or more than *two* persons besides the driver on the box, such driver so offending, and being convicted on confession, the view of a justice, or by the oath of one witness, before any justice of the peace, where such offence shall be committed, shall, for every person so riding or going as an outside passenger above the number aforesaid, forfeit 40*s.* and in case the owner shall be the driver of such carriage, then 4*l.*; and in default of payment, be committed to the gaol or house of correction for one month, unless the penalty be sooner paid. And it is further enacted, that if the driver of any coach, chaise, or other carriage of the like sort, drawn by three or more horses, and travelling for hire, shall suffer more than one person to go on the coach box besides himself, and four on the roof; or if such carriage be drawn by less than three horses, more than one person on the box (except the driver of such carriage drawn by less than three horses, which shall not go more than twenty-five miles from the post-office in London, and which shall not carry more than one person on the box, and four on the roof, at the same time); he shall pay to the toll-taker at every turnpike gate through which such carriage shall pass 5*s.* for every person above such number as aforesaid: and if any such passenger beyond the number so limited, shall be set down, or taken up, whereby the said payment of five shillings may be evaded; the driver so offending, and being convicted, either by confession, view of a justice, or oath of one witness before any justice of the county or place where such offence is committed, shall be committed to the common gaol or house of correction, not exceeding one calendar month, nor less than fourteen days, at the discretion of such justice; which said sum of five shillings a passenger, shall be collected and recovered, in like manner as the turnpike tolls at such gate are by the act for repairing such road authorized to be collected and recovered. And there shall be

be painted on the outside of each of the doors of every such carriage (mail coaches excepted) in large and legible characters, the christian and surname of the proprietor; and if more than one proprietor, and any one of them reside within the bills of mortality, such person's name shall be the name to be put upon such carriage. To these provisions others were added, obliging the proprietors to take licences progressively, advancing in proportion to the number to be carried, and to paint on their carriages the number they are licensed to carry.

CARRIERS. All persons carrying goods for hire, as masters and owners of ships, lightermen, stage-coachmen, &c. come under the denomination of common carriers, and are chargeable, by the general custom of the realm, for their faults and miscarriages. Also if a person, who is a common carrier, takes upon himself to carry goods, though no reward is promised, yet if goods are lost or damaged, by his default, an action will lie against him. The postmaster general does not come under the denomination of a carrier: he has no hire; and enters into no contract. The post-office is a branch of revenue, and a branch of police, created by act of parliament. The salary annexed to the office of post-master, is for no other consideration, than the trouble of executing it. He is, therefore, not liable for any constructive negligence.

HIGHWAYS AND BRIDGES. The advantage derived to travellers and the trading interest in general from the state of the highways and bridges throughout the kingdom is evident, and of the highest importance. The laws for preserving and repairing highways and bridges, and for preventing nuisances and injuries which might affect them, have been noticed in the second volume of this work.

CANALS AND RAILWAYS. Another great improvement in the transport of produce from one part of the country to another remains to be noticed; it is the construction of Canals and Railways, now so extensively, and so beneficially pursued in most parts of the kingdom. The following observations on, and account of those in the United Kingdom are abridged from an article very ably compiled in Dr. Rees's new Cyclopædia.

The importance and utility of canals have been so long and so generally acknowledged, that it is hardly necessary to introduce the subject with any observations to this purpose. Dr. Smith observes, in his *Wealth of Nations*, that good roads, canals, and navigable rivers, by diminishing the expense of carriage, put the remote parts of the country more nearly upon a level with those in the neighbourhood of large towns; and on that account they are the greatest of all improvements. They encourage the cultivation of the remote parts, which must always be the most extensive circle of the country. They are advantageous

tageous to towns, by breaking down the monopoly of the country in its neighbourhood; and they are advantageous to all parts of the country; for though they introduce some rival commodities into the old markets, they open many new markets to its produce. "It is not more than 50 years ago," says he in 1776, when the first edition of his work was printed, "that some of the countries in the neighbourhood of London, petitioned the parliament against the extension of the turnpike roads into the remoter counties. Those remoter counties, they pretended, from the cheapness of labour, would be able to sell their grafs and corn cheaper in the London market than themselves, and would thereby reduce their rents, and ruin their cultivation. Their rents, however, have risen, and their cultivation has been improved since that time." All canals, says Mr. Phillips, in the Introduction to his General History of Inland Navigation, may be considered as so many roads of a certain kind, on which one horse will draw as much as 30 horses on ordinary turnpike roads, or on which one man alone will transport as many goods as three men and 18 horses usually do on common roads. The public would be great gainers were they to lay out upon the making of every mile of a canal twenty times as much as they expend upon a mile of turnpike road; but a mile of canal is often made at a less expense than the mile of turnpike: consequently there is a great inducement to multiply the number of canals."

The advantages resulting from canals, as they open an easy and cheap communication between distant parts of a country, will be ultimately experienced by persons of various descriptions: and more especially by the manufacturer, the occupier or owner of land, and the merchant. The manufacturer will thus be enabled to collect his materials, his fuel, and the means of subsistence, from remote districts, with less labour and expense; and to convey his goods to a profitable market. As canals multiply, old manufactures revive and flourish, new ones are established, and the adjoining country is rendered populous and productive. To the occupier of land, canals are useful in a variety of ways. In some cases, they serve the purposes of draining and irrigation; in others, they furnish manure at a cheap rate; and they facilitate the conveyance of the produce to places where it may be disposed of to the greatest advantage. The land owner must of course be benefited, by the increasing value and advanced rent of his estate, in consequence of the improvement it receives from the industry of the occupier, excited and encouraged by an immediate recompence. The wholesale trader and merchant are likewise enabled to extend their commerce by means of canals; as they can thus export greater quantities

quantities and varieties of goods from places remote from the sea, and easily supply a wider extent of inland country with the commodities that are imported from foreign nations. Nor are they merely the means of extending and increasing foreign commerce, but they serve also to create and augment an internal trade, which, with all the advantages attendant on foreign commerce, may probably far exceed it in extent, value, and importance. We might add, that an inland communication between parts of a country, at a great distance from one another, contribute to the security, as well as to the extension of commerce, in the boisterous months of winter, and in times of war, when the navigation of the seas would be attended with danger. "Were we to make the supposition of two states," says Mr. Phillips, "the one having all its cities, towns, and villages upon navigable rivers and canals that have an easy communication with each other; the other possessing the common conveyance of land-carriage; and supposing, at the same time, both states to be equal as to soil, climate, and industry; commodities and manufactures, in the former state, might be exported 30 *per cent.* cheaper than in the latter; or, in other words, the first state would be a third richer and more affluent than the second." Should it be objected, that navigable canals waste or occupy too great a portion of land in the countries through which they pass, the objection may be obviated by the consideration, that one mile of a canal, 14 yards wide, takes up little more than five acres of land.

The navigation of our rivers, by ships or smaller vessels, was, from a very early period, an object of considerable importance, but the very inadequate provision made by general laws for protecting internal navigation from the encroachments of individuals, and the effects of neglect, probably suggested the propriety of those particular grants or statutes which enabled corporations, and in some instances individuals, to take particular rivers under their charge, and to receive tolls or dues from the vessels navigating within their particular district. In process of time, as population increased, and the advantages of water carriage became more apparent, further grants and acts of parliament were made, authorising companies or individuals to extend the navigation on certain rivers further into the country, generally to reach some city or great town; these acts, some of which we shall particularize hereafter, generally enabled the parties to deepen, and in some instances to straiten the course of their rivers, to embank them where too wide, to erect jetties and sluices, to make flashes for surmounting the shallows or rapids, and in later times to erect pound-locks for gaining the ascent to the different mill-dams upon the river. But the constant
tendency

tendency of rivers, especially rapid ones, to cast up banks of sand or gravel in particular places, their deficiency of water in times of drought, and superabundance in times of flood, the ravaging effects of these last in destroying the works erected for the use of the navigation; the great labour and difficulty of towing or dragging vessels against the stream, especially where there was not a towing-path for horses, near to the channel of the river, and yet not subject to be overflowed and rendered useless in time of floods; the very lengthened course of most rivers, arising from their serpentine, and, in some instances, varying channel, was not also among the smallest of the difficulties attending them: these, at length suggested the propriety of leaving the bed of the rivers in some instances for a new cut for the navigation across a neck of land, with a pound-lock at its lower extremity. As these side-cuts and pound-locks were increased in number, to shorten the course of the rivers, their superior advantages became so apparent, that a company of gentlemen and merchants, who had in 1755 obtained an act of parliament authorising them to make Sankey Brook navigable from the Mersey river to near St. Hellins, in Lancashire, with the powers at that time usual in navigation acts, for the purchasing of land and other things necessary for the intended navigation, at a fair estimate to be made by commissioners named in the acts; they determined, after mature deliberation, to avoid the bed or channel of the brook altogether, and to make one entire new cut or canal, as near as convenient to the bed of the river, with locks thereon, in such places as the falls of the ground should render necessary; and this canal they accordingly effected about the year 1760, supplying its highest pound or level with water, by a cut or fender from the Brook. Thus navigable canals had their rise in England; but, a less fortunate set of gentlemen, who under the power of an act obtained in the year 1730, for making the river Stroudwater navigable, from the river Severn to near the town of Stroud, although the act empowered them "to make as many new cuts as they may judge proper, and of what length and breadth they shall think convenient;" yet when they had, about the year 1774, determined upon following the example of the Sankey proprietors, and in imitation of the duke of Bridgewater's, and several other canals, which had then been executed or were begun; by cutting a canal on the side of the Stroudwater river, they were stopped by an expensive law-suit, carried on by certain mill and land owners in the neighbourhood: whereby the distinction between the river navigation acts, and canal acts was established by the Court of Exchequer, before which the case came to be argued.

About the year 1757, the Duke of Bridgewater, acquainted fully, no doubt, with what had been near 80 years before effected, on the canal of Languedoc, in the South of France, and since in different parts of the Continent, conceived the idea of a canal for the purpose of conveying coals from his estate at Worley in Lancashire, to Salford near Manchester. His grace profiting, as no doubt he did, by the works of that great French engineer, Francis Riquet, and by the advice of that great natural and self-taught genius James Brindley, whom his grace called off, about the year 1758, from his employment as a millwright and engine-maker in this country, to perfect, and carry into execution, the great and important schemes which he had projected, and for which he proposed and brought into parliament the first act, with powers adequate to the great and extraordinary undertaking of cutting a canal of several miles in length, not in the direction of any river or stream of water, but crossing the course of several brooks, roads, &c. and through the lands of a vast number of different persons, all of whom were to be fully compensated, though deprived of the power of withholding their lands or waters, or in any way obstructing the design. In these respects, the Duke of Bridgewater has not improperly been called the father of canals in England, while his engineer, Mr. Brindley, by his masterly performances on the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, altered and extended as the scheme was, by three subsequent acts of parliament, has secured to himself, and will, it should seem, from a comparison of the great features, and minutiae of execution in this the first canal, with most others in this country, even of the latest construction, long continue to hold, that rank among the English engineers, to which M. Riquet seems entitled among foreigners.

The course, thus happily opened by the Duke of Bridgewater, was quickly followed by new sets of adventurers, who were seen applying to parliament in almost every session, for powers to raise a joint stock on transferable shares, and to make and maintain canals in most parts of the kingdom, many of which have been long completed, and have contributed in a most eminent degree to the improvement of the country, as well as to the enriching of the individuals concerned in a great number of instances; in the laudable zeal of adventurers to extend, and of the people of great towns and proprietors of mines and great manufactories to receive, the benefits of inland navigation; numerous schemes have been adopted, where from the actual scarcity of water, or its previous appropriation to mills, a canal with locks was impracticable.

The necessity of an expeditious and cheap mode of conveying coals from the pits to the keels or ships, had, as early as the

the year 1680, introduced the use of wooden railways, for the waggons to move upon, between the Tyne river and some of the principal pits, and these by degrees became extended to a great number of other coal-works. Since the more general introduction of cast iron, and its cheaper conveyance by means of canals, iron rails have been substituted in the place of the wooden ones before mentioned; and the use of inclined planes, or parts of the rail-way having a much greater declivity or slope than it is practicable to drag carriages up by means of horses, has become very frequent in parts where the rise of the ground required it, machinery being on these inclined planes adopted to supply the place of horses.

Several years ago, an act of parliament was obtained by Homfray, Hill, and Co. for an iron rail-way, or tram-road from Cardiff to Merthyr, by the side of, and as a rival scheme of the Glamorganshire canal, for 9 miles or more in length; since which, several other acts have been passed for rail-ways, and several of them executed, to the great benefit of the country, and the companies who constructed them; it has also become common within the same period, to authorise canal companies to construct rail-ways, as collateral branches from their canal, to mines or other great works, or to large towns within certain distances of such canals; by which their benefits have been amazingly extended; most of the latter acts have also authorised the adoption of rail-ways, of inclined planes, or of any of the expedients above-mentioned, or others as substitutes for locks, in such parts thereof, as are not readily to be supplied with water, adequate to the waste which locks occasion. So many of these compound schemes for lessening the expense of carriage have been already executed, or are in hand, that it is considered proper to include the subject of rail-ways, with that of Canals.

Great Britain as well as every other island, and even a continent taken as a whole, has a range of high land passing nearly its whole length, which divides the springs and rain waters that fall to the opposite coasts: this range, dividing the eastern and western rivers of Britain, may be termed the grand ridge, and it is to be remarked that no less than 22 canals now do or are intended to pass this grand ridge, forming as many navigable connections between the rivers of the east and west seas.

When it is proposed to form any canal, the choice of a skilful and experienced engineer is an object of primary consideration. Without due attention to this object, many impracticable projects may be adopted, and large sums of money may

be expended without accomplishing any important and useful purpose. To him it belongs to make the necessary surveys and calculations, and to confer on his employers all the benefits to be derived from knowledge and experience, and these, in such an undertaking, are more extensive and multifarious than can be described in this work.

When the engineer has perfected his survey, the application for an act of parliament becomes an object of consideration. The acts for canals and rail-ways are now so numerous that their principles are perfectly understood; their great requisites are, the establishment of a company as a corporation, with a fixed name: power for the projectors to obtain such lands as they may want, on making a proper compensation; to raise money, to make bye-laws, and generally to do all acts which may benefit the concern, taking care that a proportionate benefit shall also be secured to the public.

The act of parliament for a canal being passed, and therein the time and place for the first meeting of the subscribers or proprietors thereof being fixed; one of the first businesses of such meeting will be the election of a general committee of management, consisting of the most independent, respectable, and generally informed persons among the proprietors. The committee of management will then proceed to elect a chairman and subordinate officers; to fix upon their place of meeting, and to arrange the order of their business.

It will not often happen that the engineer can be spared from the projection and superintendence of other great concerns, to attend to the cutting of the canal and erection of the several works, without the assistance of a resident engineer, or more than one, if the line be of considerable length, and distant parts of it are intended to be proceeded with at the same time; and the committee will do well to leave it to their engineer to recommend all such assistant or resident engineers from among those who have been brought up or employed under him, or are well known and approved by him, for their mathematical knowledge and practical skill, experience and attention in the several kinds of works that are to be executed. The attention of the committee should be directed to fixing upon some land surveyor and valuer of respectability and great practical knowledge, who has been used to and acquired address in the negotiation and settlement of purchases and exchanges of property of different kinds; and if he has been before employed upon canals he will be so much the more fit. In this stage of the business it may be well also for the committee to consider whether any local committees, or a select committee, may be necessary,

to pay the more minute attention to, and to bring before them, the concerns of particular districts of the canal, and to serve other purposes.

The body of the proprietors, assembled in a general meeting for the purpose of completing the organization of the affairs of the company, will proceed to the choice of a certain number of auditors of their accounts, and to settle the salaries of all the persons that are employed.

The engineer being now informed of the exact bounds within which the law has confined his operations, and of the several restrictions or alterations that may have been imposed or made since his former surveys, will, in all probability, find it necessary to look over the line and all the proposed works again, accompanied by the intended resident engineers; and, in such revision, it will be proper to divide the line of canal, and the several works thereof, into the necessary number of parts, and to give concise and definite names to each, that are to be used in future, in contracts and bills.

The land-surveyor should next proceed to treat, under the direction of the committee and the engineers, with the several parties who are entitled to the land that is wanted; for this purpose it will be right for the surveyor to prepare correct and explicit plans and admeasurements of every piece of land, and, in many instances, to deliver copies of the same to the parties; to consider well the intrinsic value of the land to the owner, and of any extrinsic or artificial value which it possesses, with ample allowance for the injury that his remaining property will sustain by being detached, or by the fields being cut into inconvenient and awkward shapes, or on any other account. The contracts being completed, the titles of the parties ascertained, and the purchases made, the formation of the canal proceeds, with its reservoirs, locks, bridges, tunnels, towing paths, and many other appendages. In these operations, as in those relating to Railways, science is involved, which it is impossible here to detail, and several specific improvements have been secured to the inventors by letters patent.

Referring therefore for more extensive information to the work from which this extract is made, and the authorities there cited; it is intended to follow the line the conductors of it have adopted, in enumerating, alphabetically, the canals and railways in the united kingdom.

I. ABERDARE CANAL. Act 33d of Geo. III.; its general direction (beginning at its lowest end,) about N. W.; it is $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length to Aberdare, besides an extension thence, in nearly the same direction, by a rail-way for $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles further; it is situate in the county of Glamorgan in South Wales.

2. ABERDEENSHIRE CANAL. Acts 36 and 41 of Geo. III.—The general direction is about N. W. for 19 miles in length, in Aberdeen county in Scotland; the principal objects seem the supply of the town Aberdeen, the exportation of granite stone from the famous quarries on its banks, and to form a communication between the harbour of Aberdeen and the vales of the river Don. It was completed and opened in June 1805. The company might by the first act raise 30,000 *l.*, shares 50*l.* each; and by the 2d act 20,000 *l.* more might be raised on 20*l.* shares, bearing 5 per cent. interest.

3. ADUR RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly north for 12 miles in the county of Sussex: its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

4. *Alford and Wainfleet.* In July 1805, a survey was ordered for an intended canal from Wainfleet haven to the town of Alford, the general direction of which line is nearly north, and about 12 or 13 miles in length, in the county of Lincoln: its principal objects seem the supply of Alford, and the export of husbandry produce.

5. ANCHOLME NAVIGATION. Act 42 of Geo. III.—General direction nearly south: almost straight (except the last four miles,) and about 26 miles in length, in Lincolnshire. Its objects, besides a better drainage of these fens by a wide and straight cut, instead of the old course of the river Ancholme, seem the supply of Market-Raisin and of Caistor (by means of the Caistor canal, which joins it at South Kelsey), and the export of husbandry produce.

6. ANDOVER CANAL. Act about the 30th of Geo. III.—General direction nearly north, and pretty straight, following the course nearly of the Anton river (which is navigable to Rumsey) for 22½ miles in length, in Hampshire. Its general objects seem to supply fuel to the country, and to export its surplus of farming produce.

7. *Arklow and Ovoca.* In 1792, Mr. William Chapman surveyed the vales of the Ovoca river in Ireland, and recommended to render the improvement of Arklow harbour, which was then intended, more beneficial to the adjacent country, by connecting therewith a system of small canals up the rapidly ascending vales of the Ovoca.

8. ARUN RIVER. This navigation has nearly a north direction for 15 or 16 miles in the county of Sussex. To supply coals, and export farm produce, seem its principal objects.

9. ARUNDEL CANAL. Act 31 Geo. III.—General direction west for about 11 miles. The supplying of the inhabitants with coals, and exporting of husbandry produce, seem its principal objects.

10. ASHBY

10. ASHBY DE LA ZOUCH CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal, though in a serpentine course, is nearly north, 40 miles in the counties of Warwick, Leicester, and Derby; the termination is by a rail-way of $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles at Ticknal lime-works; there also is a rail-way branch of $6\frac{3}{4}$ miles to Cloudhill lime-work; another to Mr. Wilke's Measham collieries of 5 miles: a cut of $2\frac{1}{8}$ miles to Swadlingcote coal-works; another of $\frac{7}{8}$ mile to Staunton lime-works; another is to be made to Stanton-Harrold park (if desired by the earl of Ferrers, the proprietor thereof); and there is another short cut of 200 yards to Hinckley wharf. On this canal are two tunnels, one near Ashby-de-la-Zouch town of 700 yards in length, and the other near Snareton of 200 yards. At Shackerton and at Snareton there are aqueducts; and at Boothorpe a reservoir with a steam-engine for pumping up its water into a feeder for the summit-level of the canal. The rail-way branches, and some part of the canal were completed previously to May 1802, but it was not until about May 1805, that the whole line was completed and opened. The company were authorised to raise 200,000 *l.* the amount of shares 100 *l.* each. In June 1796, a survey was made for connecting the north end of this canal, by means of the proposed Commercial canal, with the Trent and Mersey and the Chester canals, and opening the long wished for communication between London, Hull, Chester, Liverpool, Manchester, &c. for river-boats of 40 tons burthen. In consequence of the failure of this scheme, in the January following, it was proposed to extend this canal to the Trent at Burton, and to the Trent and Mersey at Shobnall.

11. AVON RIVER, (Bath.) General direction about S. E. in length 26 or 27 miles, by a crooked course in the county of Somerset, and skirting that of Gloucester. The objects of this navigation are as various, as the imports and exports of such large places as Bath and Bristol, and a populous neighbourhood require; besides its connection with the Kennet and Avon canal, and the other canals therewith connected.

12. AVON RIVER, (Salisbury.) The direction of this navigable river is very nearly north, and its length near 30 miles, in the counties of Hants and Wilts. The general objects of this navigation are the supply of Salisbury, and the adjacent country, and the export of its agriculture products.

13. AVON RIVER, (Stratford.) General direction about N. E. by a crooked course of near 40 miles in Worcestershire and Warwickshire. The trade is very various, depending in a great measure on the connection which it forms between the Severn river and the Stratford canal.

14. AXE RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is

almost S. E. for about 11 miles in length by a crooked course in the county of Somerset. Its chief objects are the import of coals, and export of farm produce.

15. *Axemouth and Langport.* In 1769, Mr. James Brindley surveyed this line, which is nearly north, and about 30 miles in length, in Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Somersetshire, crossing the south-western branch of the grand ridge. The objects of it seem to have been the supply of coals, exporting the products of the country, and opening a communication between the south coast and the Bristol channel, by means of the Parret river.

16. **AYRE AND CALDER NAVIGATION.** Act 9 or 10 Will. III. The general direction of the Ayre river is nearly west, for about 40 miles by a serpentine course. The objects of this navigation were at first very considerable, in the imports and exports of the populous, manufacturing, and coal country through which it passes, and they are greatly increased, since it has formed part of the grand communications between the port of Hull, or the German Ocean, and the towns of Manchester and Liverpool, or the Irish Sea, by means of the Leeds and Liverpool, Rochdale, and Huddersfield canals, and others joining them.

17. **BARNSELY CANAL.** Act 33 Geo. III. The first part of the course of this canal is south, and the remainder west, about 15 miles in length, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. The principal objects of it seem to be the export of coals and paving-stones, and forming a short communication with Rotherham and Sheffield (by the Dearne and Dove canal, with which it connects at Eyming wood near Barnsley), and Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Manchester, Liverpool, &c. The company were authorised to raise 97,000*l.* shares 100*l.* each. This canal was completed and opened 8th of June 1799.

18. **BARROW RIVER (Ireland).** This is one of the rivers, for the improvement of whose navigation the Irish parliament granted several sums of the public money, between the years 1753 and 1771, amounting to 13,600*l.* At Portarlinton and at Monesteraven this river was to be joined by different branches of the Grand Canal.

19. **BASINGSTOKE CANAL.** This line of Canal was first proposed in 1772, as an extension of, or appendage to, the canal intended for shortening the course of the navigation of the river Thames, between Reading and Maidenhead; but it was some years before the first act for this was obtained, in 1778; the other act is the 33 Geo. III. The general direction of this canal is nearly west, by rather a crooked course of 37 miles in length, in the counties of Surry and Hants. The principal objects seem the import of coals, and export of timber and agricultural produce, from and to the Thames. At Grewel is a
tunnel,

tunnel, part of which intersects the chalk strata, (about $\frac{3}{4}$ mile in length,) that had the misfortune of falling in ; but it has been substantially repaired. At Aldershot there is a large reservoir for the supply of this canal, (which was begun in 1788 and completed in 1796, at the expense to the proprietors of 160,000*l.*) and a feeder from the river Loddon. There are 72 bridges over the canal, and several culverts across, to convey the water from the upper to the lower lands. The company were authorised to raise 186,000*l.*

20. *Basingstoke and Hampstead.* About the year 1794, a line of canal was projected, and notices given, extending from the Basingstoke canal at that town, to the Kennet and Avon canal at Hampstead, 2 miles above Newbury; the length of the line was said to be 22 miles.

21. BELFAST to LOCH NEAGH. This line of canal was begun under an act of the Irish parliament several years ago, for forming a communication with the sea at Carrick-fergus Bay and the above inland lake or loch, as also for exporting marble from the quarries near its line.

22. BELPER CANAL. In September 1801, notices were given for a proposed canal, rail-ways, &c. from the Cromford canal at Bull-bridge, to Black-brook-bridge, through the parishes of Crick, Heage, Ashley, Hay, Belper, and Duffield; all in Derbyshire.

23. *Biggleswade and Hertford.* Several years ago a proposal was made, for joining the Ivel river at Biggleswade with the Lea river at Hertford, by means of a canal passing the town of Hitchin, by which an internal communication between Lynn and London would be opened; but the difficulty of supplying a summit-level near Stevenage with water, seems a greater obstacle than the expected trade would pay for surmounting.

24. BIRMINGHAM (old) CANAL. Acts the 8th, 9th, 11th, 23d, 24th, and 34th of Geo. III. the last but one of which acts, unites the concerns of this company with those of the Birmingham and Fazeley canal; but as these canals were constructed and remain under distinct provisions in the acts, and take different directions from the town of Birmingham, where they meet, they are separately described. The general direction of this canal is about S. E. and $22\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length by a crooked course, through the counties of Stafford, a detached part of Salop and Warwick: The collateral cuts are very numerous, the principal one extends from near Bromwich to the town of Walsal, by a crooked course of $8\frac{1}{4}$ miles; from this branch nine or more branches strike off to as many coal-works, &c. on each side of it; the lengths of all which are several miles. From the line there is also a cut of about one mile, to Oker-hill coal-works; another

another to Messrs. Bolton and Watt's famous Soho foundery ; and another to Newhall-ring basin and wharf in Birmingham. This canal was originally cut 28 feet wide at top, 16 at bottom, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ deep ; but by constant wear and widening it is now 40 feet wide at the top on the average. The locks are 70 feet long and 7 wide in the clear, and the boats carry about 22 tons. The celebrated Mr. James Brindley was the original engineer, and on the 6th of November 1769, he completed 10 miles of the line and branches next Birmingham, by which coals were first brought by water to that great town from near Wednesbury, and their price to the inhabitants was lowered at once from 15s. and 18s. to 7s. 6d. per ton ! The proprietors were authorised to raise 115,000*l.* before the consolidation of this and the Birmingham and Fazely concerns. At first the shares of this were 100*l.* each : but were by the second act, 9th Geo. III. reduced in number made 110*l.* shares ; those created since the 24th Geo. III. are 170*l.* shares. About the year 1790, a cut was proposed from this canal (instead of the Dudley junction) to Netherton collieries $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles, by a tunnel through the grand-ridge near Oldberry, of 2,078 yards, and 184 feet under the hill : in 1796, a foundery and large works belonging to Messrs. Bolton and Watt, were erected on the banks of this canal 5 miles from Soho. This canal extending across a country full of coal, it was apprehended that the sinking of the old pits might damage the same, and the company have power to enter and examine mines to prevent their working within 12 yards of the canal, except by passages of 4 feet wide, and 6 feet high : for want of more strict attention to this, some of the branches near Wednesbury have been undermined and broke in, so as to cause the canal to be abandoned in that part. From some of the old worn out coal-mine shafts near Bilstone, a lambent blue flame arises in the night, of which a great deal has been said and written. Proprietors of mines within 1000 yards of this canal, or its branches, may make rail-ways thereto.

25. BIRMINGHAM AND FAZELEY CANAL. Acts 23d, 24th, 25th and 34th of Geo. III. The second of these acts is for consolidating this concern with the old Birmingham above ; but each part of the canal remains subject to its own original regulations, and the last but one is for consolidating $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles of the Coventry canal herewith, subject to the original powers of the Coventry act (8th Geo. III.) under which it was set out and made. The general direction of this canal is S. W. exclusive of the late Coventry part, which lies in a direction between N. and N. W. from the original termination at Fazeley : the length of the whole is $20\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Stafford and

Warwick :

Warwick : The great objects of this canal are, the export of the manufactures of Birmingham towards London or Hull, and of coals ; the supply of grain and other articles to Birmingham and its populous and busy neighbourhood. The width is about 30 feet, and its depth $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The locks are 70 feet long and 7 wide in the clear, carrying boats with about 22 tons of lading. The sums of money to be raised for this canal, were not distinguished in the acts from what was intended for the extension and improvement of the old Birmingham canal, the amount of each share was 170*l.* but the act 24th Geo. III. limiting the number of shares to 500, they are now variable.

26. *Bishopstortford and Cambridge.* A project for a canal in this direction has been recommended, and its completion proposed for little more than 20,000*l.* but it is not proceeded in.

27. *Bishopstortford to Wilton.* In 1789, Mr. John Rennie was employed by several gentlemen of Essex to survey and report on a line of canal from Hils, near Wilton, on the Brandon or Little Ouse river, at the edge of the fens in Suffolk, to the Stort river at Bishopstortford ; the estimate was 175,000*l.* and a bill was brought into parliament, in 1790, but it met a fatal opposition.

28. BLACKWATER NAVIGATION (Ireland). This river falls into Loch Neagh, and for extending a navigation to the Dunganon and Tyrone collieries, the Irish parliament, between 1753 and 1770, granted various sums of the public money, amounting to 11,000*l.* a canal with 8 locks, terminating in a basin, was constructed before Mr. Davis Dukart the engineer was employed thereon ; who, finding the three miles with 200 feet rise, which remained to do to reach the Tyrone collieries, to be too great for a canal with locks, he constructed, about 1776, four water-levels, with three inclined-planes, of 70, 60, and 50 feet rise, to connect them, on which small boats were made to ascend and descend, these being the first inclined-planes for boats brought into use in the United Kingdom ; it appears, however, that these were soon laid aside in this place, and a railway was substituted. This navigation was intended to connect with the Newry canal.

29. BLYTH RIVER. This river, between Northumberland and a detached part of the county of Durham, appears to be navigable but a small distance above Blyth harbour ; but it has several considerable rail-ways connecting with it, for bringing down the produce of the collieries to the shipping.

30. BOYNE RIVER (Ireland). This is one of the rivers on the east coast of Ireland, for which the parliament, between 1768 and 1771, granted 9,507*l.* for improving its navigation.

tion. At Edenderry it was proposed to be joined by a cut from the Grand Canal.

31. BRADFORD CANAL. Acts 11 and 42 Geo. III. The general direction of this short navigation is south nearly, and 3 miles in length, in the West Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the export of coals, iron, and stone, the produce of the neighbourhood of Bradford, and the supply of Bradford town. At Bradford, rail-ways of considerable extent connect with it, one of them goes to the collieries and iron-works on Wibsey Slack; and the descent is so steep that the waggons run down without horses, having their velocity regulated by a man who rides behind, and uses the convoy or brake upon the wheels, as occasion requires. The company were empowered to raise 6000*l.* in 100*l.* shares.

32. BRECKNOCK AND ABERGAVENNY CANAL. Acts 33 and 44 of Geo. III. General direction about N. W. 33 miles in length, in the counties of Monmouth and Brecknock in South Wales. Its objects are the exportation of coals, iron, and other mineral products of the country round Abergavenny, by means of the Monmouthshire canal, and the supply of Pontypool, Abergavenny, Crickhowel, and Brecon towns, that are near its course. It has several rail-way branches: *viz.* to Abergavenny 1 mile; to Wain-Dew collieries and iron-works $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles (near $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles of this last being double on each side of the brook); and, to Llangroiney $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile. The company were at first authorised to raise 150,000*l.* and a further sum by their second act, shares 100*l.* each. In May 1805 it was proposed to extend a rail-way branch from this canal to connect with the river Wye.

33. *Bredon Rail-way.* About the year 1793 it was in contemplation to make a rail-way and canal from the famous lime-works at Bredon to the Trent river, opposite to Weston Cliff; and to effect it, a clause is inserted in the Derby canal act, of 33 Geo. III.

34. BRIDGEWATER'S CANAL. Acts 32 and 33 Geo. II. 2d, 6th, (Trent and Mersey act,) and 35th Geo. III. The general direction of the principal line of this canal is nearly N. E. (and not a great way from its eastern end, a main branch goes off in a N. W. direction nearly); the length is 40 miles, in the counties of Chester and Lancaster. The great objects which induced the late excellent and patriotic duke of Bridgewater to undertake and to expend a princely fortune on the completion of this canal were, the supply of the town of Manchester with coals from his estates near Worsley; the cheaper and more expeditious conveyance of goods, between Manchester and Liverpool, than the Mersey and Irwell river navigation then furnished;

ed; and between both of these places and the interior and most remote parts of the country, by means of the Trent and Mersey (which it joins at Preston Brook), and its connecting canals. Other and more direct communications have since been made between it and the interior and eastern parts of the kingdom, by means of the Rochdale canal and those connecting therewith. Under the town of Manchester are arched branches of the canal of considerable length, from one of which coals are hoisted up by a coal-gin, through a shaft out of the boats below, into a large coal-yard or store-house in the main street, at which place the duke and his successors are by the first act bound to supply the inhabitants of Manchester at all times with coals at only 4 *d.* per cwt. of 140 lb.; a circumstance which must have had a great effect on the growing population of this immense town within the last 40 years. At Worsley is a short cut to Worsley mills, and another to the entrance basin of the famous underground works or tunnels, of 18 miles or more in length in different branches and levels, for the navigation of coal-boats; some of which are as much as 60 yards below the canal, and others 35½ yards above the canal; these last, to which the boats ascend by means of an inclined-plane, extend to the veins of coal that are working at a great depth under Walkden Moor. Most of these tunnels are hewn out of the solid rock; from the lower one, the coals in boxes are hoisted up out of the boats, as they are in Manchester town, and the lower works are prevented from filling with water, by large pumps worked by an hydraulic machine, and the water is thereby always kept at the proper height for navigation on the lower canal. Near Worsley, a branch of about 1½ mile in length, proceeds on to Chat-Moss and there ends. The width of the canal at top is 52 feet on the average, and depth 5 feet. Besides the tunnels under Manchester and at Worsley mines, there is a short one at Groppen-hall. On this canal are three principal aqueduct bridges over the Irwell at Barton, where it is navigable, and over the Mersey and Bollin rivers, besides several smaller ones, and many road-aqueducts. There are also several large embankments. The illustrious duke of Bridgewater, justly styled the father of British Inland Navigation, died greatly lamented in March 1803, and left this immense concern, (which cost at first 220,000 *l.* it was said, and probably in the whole twice that sum, as the tunneling at Worsley alone has been estimated at 168,960 *l.*) to earl Gower, the present proprietor, whose second son is to inherit it; the net profits are said now to be from 50 to 80,000 *l.* annually. Irrigation, or watering of meadows, is practised in a very judicious and profitable manner, by water let out of this canal at Worsley and other places. The price of land-carriage for
goods

goods between Manchester and Liverpool was, on the passing of the Duke's third act, 40s. per ton, and by the navigation on the Mersey and Irwell 12s. per ton, but his Grace limited his price to 6s. per ton: yet, such has been the increasing trade of these two places, that it was in 1794 seriously maintained, and made the ground of another proposed navigable communication, by a junction of the Manchester Bolton and Bury, and the Leeds and Liverpool canals, that both the Duke's canal and the river navigation were inadequate to carry the trade between Manchester and Liverpool, and that the most frequent and ruinous delays were experienced by the merchants. In 1802, the project was again revived of a cut from the Leeds and Liverpool canal to the Leigh branch of this canal. About 1772, the Liverpool and Runcorn was proposed as an extension of this canal from Runcorn; in 1799, the Manchester Bolton and Bury, was proposed to be joined directly with this canal, by means of aqueducts over the Irwell and Medlock at Manchester.

35. *Bristol and Gloucester.* In 1797, surveys were making of the line for a proposed canal from the Bath Avon at Bristol to the Severn at Gloucester, with a continuation to the Severn at Worcester.

36. *Bristol and Taunton.* Several years ago, a canal was proposed from the Avon river at Bristol to the town of Taunton, with various cuts.

37. *Bude and Hatherleigh Canal.* In 1793, the earl of Stanhope proposed a line of water-levels and rail-ways, between the sea in Bude Haven, on the Bristol-Channel part of the Cornish coast, and the neighbourhood of Hatherleigh in Devonshire. In April 1805, a scheme was on foot, for improving the harbour of Bude and building a pier.

38. *Bude and Launceston, or the Tamar Canal.* This is one of the few instances, in which an act (14th Geo. III.) was obtained, without any part of the scheme having been carried into effect. The principal objects of this proposed canal were the carrying of salt and shelly sand from the coast into the interior of the country as manure (an object since in part accomplished by the Tamar manure, and the Stover canals.) The cost on a reduced scale was estimated at 53,100 l.

39. **BURROWSTOWNNESS CANAL.** The act 8th Geo. III. (for the Forth and Clyde canal) established a set of proprietors for this canal; its direction being nearly west for about seven miles in the counties of Linlithgow and Stirling, in Scotland. Its objects are stated to be, the avoiding part of a dangerous and difficult navigation on the Forth, and improving the lands of Kinniel and Beercrofts. The company are authorised to raise 8,000 l. the shares 50 l. each.

40. **BURRY**

40. **BURRY RIVER.** This river, or estuary, connecting with the Bristol Channel, is between the counties of Caermarthen and Glamorgan, in South Wales, at the flats in Llanelly it is joined by the Caermarthenshire rail-way, and another rail-way has lately been laid from this river to the Penclawdd copper-works: in 1801, the Llandorri and Llanelly canal was proposed to join at the Spitty in Llanelly; and, in October 1805, a wet dock was proposed to be made on the east side of the Llanelly pier to communicate with the Caermarthenshire rail-way.

41. **CAERMARTHENSHIRE RAIL-WAY.** Act 42 Geo. III.—General direction nearly north for 14 or 15 miles in Caermarthenshire. In November 1804, the embankment near this place, consisting of more than 40,000 cubic yards of earth, was completed, with the rail-way upon it. In October 1805, it was proposed to make a wet-dock for ships at the commencement of this line, on the east side of Llanelly pier; in 1801, the Llandovery and Llanelly canal was proposed to pass through nearly this line of country.

42. **CAISTOR CANAL.** Act 33 Geo. III. Direction east 9 miles in the county of Lincoln. Its objects seem the importation of fuel and other articles, for the supply of Caistor town, and the export of farming produce. The company were empowered to raise 25,000 *l.* shares 100 *l.* In 1801, there was a proposal for extending this canal from Caistor, to Hambleton Hill, the expense of which was estimated at 6,500 *l.*

43. **CALDER AND HEBBLE NAVIGATION.** Act Geo. III.—General direction nearly west, about 23 miles in length, in the west riding of Yorkshire. The general objects are the communication between Liverpool, Manchester, and Hull, by means of the Rochdale and Huddersfield canals, and Ayre and Calder rivers, the import and export of goods from Halifax, and the export of paving-stone (now so much used in London, called Yorkshire paving) from the famous quarries at Ealand-Edge and Cromwell-Bottom, and lime from Houghton, Brotherton, and Fairburn: at Cooper's Bridge it is joined by Sir John Ramsden's canal (leading to the Huddersfield canal), and at Dewsbury by the Dewsbury and Birstal rail-way. There is a rail-way branch of about half a mile to Bradley collieries; it has a cut of about half a mile in length by the side of the Hebble river, to Salter-Hebble; and provision is made (in 33 Geo. III. for Barnsley) for a cut to Bargh-mill, on a branch of Barnsley canal. From the quarries of Thomas Thornhill, Esq. at Lillon's Wood, near Ealand, a long and wide inclined plane, of about 45° of elevation, was, about the year 1774, made from the Calder river, and paved with large flat stones, on which a sledge descend-

ed loaded with stone, and by means of a rope passing over a wheel and axle, drew another empty sledge up the plane; this continued in use for some years; but this quarry was disused before the year 1783. In 1794, the Manchester Bolton and Bury canal was proposed to be extended to join this at Sowerby-Bridge. In 1802, the Wibsey and Dewsbury rail-way was proposed to join at Raven's Bridge, and notices were given in 1805, for the Wakefield and Hullet rail-way, intended to join this navigation at Bottom Boat, near Wakefield; a side-cut is also making near Bridge-house, for avoiding the mill-dams, and improving this navigation.

44. CAM RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is about south-west, for 14 or 15 miles in the county of Cambridge. Its principal object is the supply of the town of Cambridge.

45. CAMEL RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is about south-east for near 8 miles, in the county of Cornwall; and is chiefly used in the import of coals and export of agricultural produce.

Canterbury and Nicholas Bay. In 1802 a canal was proposed, and again in 1804, and surveys taken, for a canal on a level, capable of carrying sea-built vessels, between the sea at St. Nicholas Bay, near Margate, to the city of Canterbury, about 10 or 11 miles in a south-west direction, there to connect with the Stour river, and with a canal then proposed, called the Medway and Rother canal.

46. CARDIFF AND MERTHYR-TYDVIL RAIL-WAY. Act about 35 Geo. III.—This line is nearly in a north-west direction, for $26\frac{1}{4}$ miles, in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales. The general object of this rail-way is the export of iron from the great works at Merthyr Tydvil, Dowlais, &c.

47. CARON RIVER. The direction of this river is west, in the county of Stirling, in Scotland, and at Caron shore there is a cut from the Forth and Clyde canal; and near Caron shore are the famous Caron iron-works.

48. CART RIVER. The direction of this navigation is nearly south for about 3 miles in Renfrewshire, in Scotland; its objects being the supply, and the exports and imports of the great manufacturing town of Paisley, at which place it was proposed, in 1803, to be joined by the Glasgow and Saltcoats canal.

49. CHELMER AND BLACKWATER NAVIGATION. Acts 6 and 33 Geo. III.—General direction is nearly west for $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Essex; its general objects are the supply of Chelmsford and its neighbourhood with coals, deals, &c. and

and the export of farm produce. An engineer surveyed this line in 1762, and recommended 13 miles of new canal, and estimated the same at near 16,700*l.* The basin at Collier's reach was opened for ships in February 1796; the company were authorized to raise 60,000*l.* the amount of shares 100*l.* each; in 1802 these were so depreciated, that they were said not to be worth 5*l.* each.

50. *Cheltenham and Tewksbury.* In 1801, notices were given for a proposed canal from the Severn river, through the parishes of Tewksbury, Tredington, Elmstone-Hardwick, Uckington, Swindon, and Cheltenham, a course nearly south-east for about 8 miles, in the county of Gloucester.

51. CHESTER CANAL. Acts 11 and 17 Geo. III.—General direction about south-east for 18 miles, in the county of Chester; its principal objects are the export of farming produce, and the import of coals and lime for Nantwich town, and the surrounding country. In consequence of some expensive and unsuccessful projects the shares became perhaps the most depreciated of any concern in the kingdom, being sold at one time, for one *per cent.* of their original value. In 1793, a junction was proposed near Nantwich, with a branch of the intended Sandbach canal; in 1793, a rival scheme to the Ellesmere, called the Eastern Grand Trunk, was proposed to join at Crows-nest; and in June 1796, the commercial canal was proposed to join at the same place, in order to form, by means of the Ashby-de-la-Zouch canal, and others, a communication for 40 ton boats, between Liverpool, Chester, Hull, London, &c.

52. CHESTERFIELD CANAL. Act 10 Geo. III.—General direction nearly south-west, by a crooked course 46 miles in length, in the counties of Nottingham, York, and Derby; its principal objects are the export of coals from near Chesterfield, and lead from the Derbyshire mines, and the import of lime, corn, timber, &c. At Norwood is a tunnel through Hartshill of 2850 yards in length, being 12 feet high and 9½ wide within-side the arch, and 36 feet below the surface of the hill; at Drake's-hole is another tunnel of 153 yards in length. It appears that the canal cost 160,000*l.* and the shares were at first much depreciated, and sold for a long time below par; in September 1805 the profits amounted to 6*l. per cent.* annually. A junction was intended at Chesterfield with the proposed Chesterfield and Swarkstone canal; and in 1802, an extension of this canal was proposed of 5 or 6 miles in length, nearly south to Ashover.

53. *Chesterfield and Swarkstone.* The late Mr. Brindley, about the year 1771, proposed this canal, being about 25 miles nearly north, through a country very rich in coals.

54. CHICHESTER HAVEN. In September 1805, notices were given for cutting a short canal, to commence with a sea-lock in deep water in this haven, and proceed to Upper Southgate field, in Chichester, there to terminate in a spacious basin or dock.

55. CLELBY RIVER. This river has nearly a north-east course, in the county of Pembroke, in South Wales.

56. CLYDE RIVER. Acts 34 Geo. II. and 9 and 11 Geo. III. — This river or frith commences with a most noble and capacious estuary, in the northern or Irish channel, and extends nearly north, to Gonrook, when its direction changes towards the east, and its width diminishes gradually to Glasgow, where the navigation terminates. In 1805 an act was obtained by the earl of Eglinton and others, for building new piers and improving Ardrossan harbour, and building wet-docks, &c. near Saltcoats, on this river, and in this harbour, as well as at Glasgow, many improvements have been projected.

57. CODBECK BROOK. Act 7 Geo. III. — The direction of this navigation is nearly north for about six miles, in the north riding of Yorkshire, commencing in the Swale river near Topcliff, and extending to the town of Thirsk, for whose accommodation it is intended.

58. COLNE RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is nearly N.W. for about 8 miles, in the county of Essex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, and of oysters from the banks below Wivenhoe.

59. ST. COLUMB CANAL. The general direction of this canal is nearly east for seven or eight miles, in the county of Cornwall; its objects are the export of a particular species of stone found about St. Dennis, called China-stone, used in great quantities in Wedgwood's, and other potteries near the line of the Trent and Mersey canal, and the import of coals, and of a sea-sand consisting of broken shells for manure. This canal was proposed to proceed across the western branch of the grand ridge to the south coast; not one third of which length has, however, been carried into effect.

60. *Commercial Canal.* In 1796, a line was surveyed proceeding from the Chester canal at Nantwich to the Ashby de la-Zouch canal near that town. The objects of this proposed canal were, the forming of a communication for larger boats (40 tons) than the Trent and Mersey is calculated for, except below Burton, and contributing towards the wished for passage of large boats between Liverpool, Manchester, Chester, Hull, London, &c.

61. CONWAY RIVER. This river has nearly a south course for 14 or 15 miles, between the counties of Caernarvon and Denbigh

Denbigh in North Wales; its principal object seems to be the supply of Llanrwst and Aberconway, which are considerable towns. At Llanrwst, there is a curious stone bridge of three arches, built by Inigo Jones, over this river; and in 1802, it was proposed to construct a stupendous cast iron bridge over it at Aberconway ferry, in order to facilitate the communication with Ireland by way of Holyhead, in the Isle of Anglesea; another iron bridge being intended at Bangor ferry, on Menai strait.

62. COOMBE-HILL CANAL. Act 32 Geo. III.—The course of this canal is nearly S.E. for $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the county of Gloucester: its general objects are the export of coals from the mines near it, and shortening of the length of land carriage to Cheltenham. This canal was constructed at the sole expense of three persons, viz. Thomas Burges, William Miller, and Sarah Mumford.

63. *Cottingham and Hull*. In the year 1802, this line of canal was proposed, about four or five miles in length, in a N.W. direction, in the east riding of Yorkshire. The import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, and perhaps of chalk, seem to be its principal objects.

64. COVENTRY CANAL. Acts 8, 25, (for Trent and Mersey) and 26 of Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly S.E. for about 22 miles (exclusive of the detached part beyond the Birmingham and Fazely canal, and the branch to Coventry) in Staffordshire and Warwickshire. Its general objects are the line of communication between London, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, &c. the export of coals from the numerous mines near it, and the supply of Coventry city. There is a cut of about one mile in length to Griff collieries, belonging to sir Roger Newdigate; another to several collieries by different branches near Seefwood-pool and Bedworth, five or six miles in length; there is also a cut of half a mile from the line to Bedworth; the branch to Coventry is $4\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, and there is a rail-way branch to Oldbury coal works. The line of communication was opened by the completion of this canal in June 1790. This company have been authorised to raise 120,000*l.*, their shares being 100*l.* each. Some years after the completion of this and the Oxford canal, the shares herein had obtained the great price of 400*l.*, but owing to the rivalry of the Warwick and Napton canal, they were, in 1802, reduced to 350*l.*, and their dividend to 8*l.* *per cent.* Since the completion of the Grand Junction, this concern has been flourishing, and the dividends are now 16*l.* *per annum per share.*

65. CREE RIVER. The course of this river is nearly north, for 9 or 10 miles of a crooked course, between the counties

of Wigton and Kirkcudbright in Scotland; its object is the supply of the adjoining country, and of Wigton.

66. CRINAN CANAL. Acts 33, 39, and 45 Geo. III.—The course of this very wide and deep canal is nearly west for about nine miles, in the county of Argyle in Scotland; its sole object is the shortening of the passage for ships between the Irish Sea and the Clyde river (by means of the loch of Fine), by avoiding the voyage round the peninsula of Kintire. The proprietors have been authorised to raise 180,000*l.*, and they have also received 50,000*l.* of the public money, which parliament granted in aid of this great and important work. The shares are 50*l.* each. A passage may, it is said, be made by means of this canal in three or four days, which frequently took up three weeks.

67. CROMFORD CANAL. Act Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is about N.W. for 18 miles, in the counties of Nottingham and Derby; its general objects are the export of coals, and of lead, iron, lime-stone, and other minerals from the mines of Derbyshire. The width of this canal at top is 26 feet; the boats are 80 feet long, $7\frac{1}{8}$ feet wide, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep; when empty they draw 8 or 9 inches of water, and when loaded with 22 tons, they draw about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. Near Ripley is a tunnel of 2966 yards in length, which is 9 feet wide within-side at the water's surface, and 8 feet high from thence to the crown of the arch, which is of brick, except some parts where the rock proved hard and sound enough to stand without walling. There are several smaller tunnels upon the line for shortening its course. Over the Derwent river, near Wigwell, there is a large aqueduct bridge 200 yards long and 30 feet high. Over a small river, which comes into the Derwent near Frithly, is another large aqueduct bridge about 200 yards long and 50 feet high; these two aqueducts are said to have cost about 6000*l.* This canal was completed before the year 1794. The total cost is said to have exceeded 80,000*l.* In 1797, a cut was proposed from the summit-level to the new collieries in Codnor park. In 1801, notices were given for the intended Belper canal, that was proposed to join this near to Bull bridge; and in 1802, a cut was proposed to be made from the Derwent aqueduct on this canal to near Dethick, and thence near the Derwent and Wye rivers to the town of Bake-well.

68. CROUCH RIVER. The course of this river is nearly west, in the county of Essex. The principal objects of this navigation are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, and of oysters from near Walfleet.

69. CROYDON CANAL. Act 41 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly south for $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the coun-
ties

ties of Kent and Surry: it is not greatly elevated; its objects are the supply of Croydon with coals, deals, &c. and the country through which it passes with manures and other articles, and the conveyance of its produce to the London markets, and the export of fire-stone, flint, and fuller's earth. This company are to have a bason for their boats to lie in at Rotherhithe, on the south-east side of the Grand Surry entrance bason, and another by the high road near Croydon town. There are seven road bridges and 30 accommodation swing-bridges. The company are empowered to raise 80,000*l.*, which is not now expected to prove sufficient; the shares are 100*l.* each.

70. *Croydon and Wandsworth.* In September 1800, proposals were made for a canal from the river Thames at Wandsworth, to Croydon in Surry; but it was given up in favour of the north Surry iron rail-way.

71. *CYFARTHFA CANAL.* The general direction of this canal, or water level, is nearly N.W. for about 3 miles in the county of Brecknock; it was constructed to bring coals and iron-ore from the mines in the mountains, to Cyfarthfa, near Merthyr Tidvil.

72. *DARENT RIVER.* The course of this river (called Dartford creek,) is south for near 3 miles in the county of Kent; it terminates near Dartford, for whose supply it is principally used.

73. *DART RIVER.* General direction nearly N.W. for about 10 miles in Devonshire; its principal objects seem to be the supply of Totness with coals, and the country with shell-sand manure, and the export of farming produce.

74. *Dean-Forest Rail-way.* In 1802, it was proposed to construct a rail-way from the river Wye, near English Bichnor, to the summit of the Forest of Dean, its object being the carriage of coal and iron. In the preceding year the Severn and Wye rail-way was proposed to pass nearly the same track.

75. *DEAN RIVER.* Act 12 Geo. III.—Direction nearly S. for about 2 miles in the county of Nottingham. The works were completed in Jan. 1797. In 1793, the Newark and Bottersford was proposed to join this at Newark.

76. *DEARNE AND DOVE CANAL.* Acts 33 and 40 Geo. III. General direction about N.W. for $9\frac{1}{4}$ miles in the West Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the communication between Sheffield, Wakefield, Halifax, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, &c. and the export of the coals and iron-stone, &c. so plentifully found on its course. It was completed in 1804; the company were empowered to raise 100,000*l.*; the shares 100*l.* each. In May 1797, earl Fitzwilliam proposed, at his own expense, to extend the Cobcar Ing branch to his

Elficar collieries, on being allowed water from the Elficar reservoir.

77. DEBEN RIVER. The course of this river is nearly N.W. for about 10 miles in the county of Suffolk; its objects are the imports of coals, deals, &c. and exports of farm produce.

78. DEE RIVER, (*Aberdeen.*) This river takes its course about west for 2 miles, between Aberdeenshire and Mearns county in Scotland.

79. DEE RIVER, (*Chester.*) The general course of this river is nearly S.E. for about 22 miles in the county of Flint, and skirting the county of Chester. On the N.W. side of Chester the Ellesmere canal connects with this navigation and crosses it; at Chester this river is joined by the Chester canal.

80. DEE RIVER, (*Kirkcudbright.*) The course of this river is nearly N. for about 6 miles in the county of Kirkcudbright in Scotland; and at the town of Kirkcudbright the Glenkens canal connects with the river.

81. DERBY CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III.—This canal runs nearly N. for about 9 miles in the county of Derby; its objects are the supply of the town of Derby, and the export of coals and iron. There is a rail-way branch of $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, to Smithey-houfes near Derby, another to Horsley collieries, and another of $1\frac{3}{4}$ mile to Smalley mills. This canal is 44 feet wide at top, 24 at bottom, and in general 5 feet deep. A little W. of the river Derwent, the canal crosses a brook in a cast-iron trough or aqueduct. This canal was finished in 1794; the company were authorised to borrow 90,000 *l.* the value of shares being 100 *l.* The profits of this concern are not to exceed 8 *per cent.* but after 4000 *l.* is accumulated as a stock for contingencies, the tolls are to be reduced.

82. DERWENT RIVER, (*Derby.*) The course of this river is nearly N.W. for about 9 or 10 miles in the county of Derby; its principal object was the supply of Derby, previous to the making of the Derby canal, when this concern was sold to that company.

83. DERWENT RIVER, (*New Malton.*) The general course of this river is nearly N. for about 37 miles in the East Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the supply of New Malton with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, chalk, &c.

84. DERWENT RIVER, (*Workington.*) The course of this river is nearly E. in Cumberland. In the vicinity of Workington, on the banks of this river, are several rail-ways, which bring down coals from the mines for exportation.

85. DEWSBURY AND BIRSTAL RAIL-WAY. The general direction of this rail-way is nearly N. for about 3 miles, in the West

West Riding of Yorkshire, and its object is to bring down coals to the vessels in the Calder river; it was completed in October 1805.

86. DON (or *Dun*) RIVER. Act 12 Geo. II. General direction nearly S.W. for near 40 miles in the West Riding of Yorkshire. The original objects of this navigation were principally the supply of Sheffield, and the export of the iron-ware and iron from Sheffield, Rotherham, &c. since which period, the Dearne and Dove canal, which joins at Swinton, and the Stainforth and Keadby, at Fishlake and at Hangman Hill, and the cut to the Ayre river near Snaith, have opened new sources of supply, and for the export of coals, stones, iron, and manufactured goods of several kinds, which this rich track of country produces. In September 1803, notices were given for a new act for weirs and side-cuts to this river in Mexborough, Spotborough, and other places, and a new course for the river, near the junction of Dearne river. And, in February 1803, there was a design of extending this navigation to Sheffield by a canal from Tinsley, 4 miles, for which 30,000 *l.* was subscribed.

87. DONNINGTON-WOOD CANAL. The general direction of this canal is about N. or N.E. for 7 miles in Shropshire; its object is the conveyance of iron-stone and lime-stone from the mines to the Donnington-wood iron works in Lileshal parish, and lime and coals for the supply of the town of Newport. This canal was cut in 1778 at the joint expense of the marquis of Stafford and Messrs. John and Thomas Gilberts. In June 1797 this was proposed to be joined at Pave-lane by the Newport and Stone canal.

88. DORSET AND SOMERSET CANAL. Acts 36 and 43 Geo. III. General direction nearly S. for about 40 miles in the counties of Wilts, Somerset, and Dorset: its principal objects are the supply of the manufacturing towns and neighbourhood through which it passes, with coals from the mines bordering on Mendip, and the opening of an inland communication between the Bristol channel, the Severn, the Thames, and the southern coast of the island. The company were by the first act authorised to raise 225,000 *l.* and a further sum under the second, we believe, the amount of shares being 100 *l.*

89. DOUGLAS RIVER (*Lower Navigation*). Acts 6 Geo. I. and 10 and 23 Geo. III. (for *Leeds and Liverpool*.) The course of this navigation is nearly south; for 9 miles in Lancashire; its objects are the export of common and cannel coals, and farm produce, and the import of lime-stone. The width of the canal is 24 to 30 feet, and depth of water 5 feet.

90. DRIFFIELD CANAL. Acts 7 and 41 Geo. III; course nearly north for about 11 miles in the East Riding of Yorkshire;

shire; its general objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

91. DROITWICH CANAL. Act 8 Geo. III. General direction about N.E. for $5\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the county of Worcester; its objects are the export of salt and the import of coals, of which 13,500 tons are annually used in the boiling of salt, except what the town of Droitwich consumes. The proprietors were authorised to raise 33,400 *l.* the amount of shares being 100 *l.* By the act for the Worcester and Birmingham canal (31 Geo. III.), the shares are guaranteed to produce 5 *per cent.* annually, and are to be made up by that company in case of their falling below that sum. Owing to the overflowings of the copious salt springs near Droitwich, this canal presents the curious spectacle of a salt-water canal, in the interior of the country, in which no river-fish can live.

92. DROMREAGH CANAL (*Ireland*). Between the years 1768 and 1771, the Irish parliament granted 3000 *l.* towards carrying on the works.

93. DRUMGLASS CANAL. This canal connects with the Drumglass collieries in Ireland, towards the works of which canal and collieries, the Irish parliament, between the years 1753 and 1771, granted 117,714 *l.*

94. DUDLEY (and *Owen*) CANAL. Acts 16, 25, 30, 33, and 36 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. by a crooked course of 13 miles in Worcestershire, a detached part of Shropshire, and Staffordshire; the town of Dudley and the busy and rich country through which this canal passes, furnish an ample tonnage in the export of coals, iron, and lime, while its communication with the Stourbridge canal, by the Black-Delph branch, and the terminating canals, occasions a very considerable carrying trade. The depth of water in this canal is 5 feet; the width of the locks on the Black-Delph branch is 7 feet. To near Lapal, or Laplat, this canal passes through a tunnel 3776 yards long, at Gorsty hill it passes through another of 623 yards, under a collateral branch of the grand ridge, and at Dudley there is another tunnel of 2926 yards in length on the summit-level of the canal; the arch of this last tunnel has a height of $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The company has been authorised to raise 229,100 *l.* the amount of shares being 100 *l.* each originally.

95. *Durham and Chester-le-street*. In February 1797, Mr. Robert Whitworth made a report in favour of a proposed canal from the Tyne to Chester-le-street, and thence to Durham; it was estimated to cost 79,000 *l.* and the probable advantage thereon to subscribers was stated to be near 20 *per cent.*

96. EDEN RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly S.E. for about 12 or 13 miles in the county of Cumberland; its principal objects seem the export of coals, and the supply

supply of Carlisle. In 1799 a rail-way, from the earl of Carlisle's coal-works, near Brompton, to this river, was opened; and in 1803 another was intended from lord Lowther's coal-works at Warnel, about 11 miles distant from Carlisle.

97. EDINBURGH AND GLASGOW CANAL. This canal, projected about the year 1796, appears to have nearly a west direction for about 50 miles in the counties of Edinburgh, Linlithgow, and Lanark in Scotland; its objects are the export of coals and lime from Clydesdale, through which it passes, and the opening of a direct communication between Edinburgh and Glasgow. This canal was finished in 1802; at Glasgow it connects with the Monkland, and in 1803 the Glasgow and Saltcoats was proposed also to join it.

98. ELLESMERE CANAL. Acts 33, two of the 36, 41, 42, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly south for 57 miles, by a crooked course through the counties of Chester, Flint, and Denbigh, (North Wales) and Salop; its great object is said to be the improvement of the agriculture of the extensive and fertile tracts, through which it passes, for uniting the Mersey, Dee, and Severn rivers, and exporting coals, lime, and slate, from the skirts of the Welsh hills. The depth of water in this canal is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the canal in general is calculated for boats of 70 feet long and 7 wide. There is a tunnel near Chirk of 775 yards in length, and another at Weston-Lullingfield of 487 yards in length. At Pont-Cysfalty, this canal is carried over the river Dee in an immense aqueduct trough, composed of cast-iron plates, 20 feet wide, 6 feet deep, and 320 feet long; this is supported on 19 pair of conical stone pillars at 52 feet asunder, and the middle ones 125 feet in height. At Chirk is a very large stone aqueduct bridge of 10 arches, 200 yards in length and 65 feet high, over the Ceriog river; and over the Allen river there is also an aqueduct bridge. The company are authorised to raise 500,000 *l.*, the amount of shares being 100 *l.*, which it seems were in 1802, at 20 *l.* below par. While this canal was projecting, a rival scheme was started, called the Eastern Grand Trunk from the Severn at Shrewsbury to the Chester canal at Crow's nest, with cuts to Vable-Cruis, to Bonham-Furnace, Holt, and other places.

99. EREWASH CANAL. Act 17 Geo. III. General direction nearly north for $11\frac{1}{4}$ miles along the skirt of the county of Derby, near to Nottinghamshire; its chief object is the export of coals from the numerous collieries on its banks, and those on the banks of the Nutbrook canal which joins it at Stanton, and the Nottingham canal which joins it near Langley Bridge; the branch of the Derby canal joins it between Sandiacre and Long

Long Eaton, and the Trent canal near Sawley; there is an iron rail-way branch to Brinsley coal-works.

100. *ESKE RIVER, (Whitby.)* The navigable part of this river is but short, in a S.W. direction in the East Riding of Yorkshire: it commences at the German Ocean, and extends to Whitby bridge.

101. *EXE RIVER.* The course of this river is nearly N.W. for about 10 miles in the county of Devon; its principal object seems the supply of Exeter and Topsham; near Topsham it is to be joined by the Grand Western canal.

102. *Exeter and Crediton.* In the year 1800 it was proposed to make the rivers Exe and Credenney navigable, from Exeter city to the town of Crediton, about seven miles.

103. *Exeter and Uphill.* In 1769 Mr. John Brindley surveyed the country for a canal from the river Exe at Exeter, by Tiverton, Wellington, Taunton, and Glastonbury, to the British Channel near Uphill; the objects of which have been since embraced in the Grand Western canal.

104. *FERGUS CANAL.* This is an Irish inland navigation, in aid of which, public money was from time to time granted, though it is said to have amounted to no more than 85 l.

105. *FORTH RIVER, (or Firth.)* This principal river of North Britain has its course nearly west for about 70 miles between the counties of Fife, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Stirling, Perth, and Clackmannan. An immense general trade is carried on upon this river, and for the supply of the metropolis of Scotland, assisted by the Edinburgh and Glasgow canal, that joins it at Leith, the Burrowstowness at that town, the Forth and Clyde, or great canal at Grangemouth, the Caron river near Rothkennar, and the Devon river near Cambus Quay. Leith harbour has undergone great improvements of late years under the acts of the 28, 38, 39, and 45 of Geo. III., by the last 25,000 l. were granted for the wet-docks and other works which have been carrying on there. Methel harbour on the north side of the Forth is also under improvement, and by the 45 of Geo. III., 2,000 l. were granted towards the building of the pier there. In 1767, it was proposed to extend a navigation from Sterling bridge to the slate and lime quarries in Aberfoil.

106. *FORTH AND CLYDE CANAL.* Acts 8, 13, and 24 of Geo. III. General direction nearly west for 35 miles in the counties of Stirling, Dumbarton, and Lanerk, in Scotland; it crosses a low part of the grand ridge between the tide-ways of the east and west seas; its principal object is a communication between those important rivers, the Forth and the Clyde, and
between.

between the northern metropolis, and the great manufacturing towns of Glasgow, Paisley, &c.; near to Grangemouth the Burrowstown's canal joins it. The width of the canal is 56 feet at top, and 27 at bottom, and the depth of water 8 feet. This canal is crossed in 33 places by draw-bridges, has 33 culverts or arches under it, and 10 large aqueduct bridges; that over the Kelvin is 400 feet in length, and 70 feet high above the surface of the river, and there is a large aqueduct which crosses the turnpike road from Glasgow to Stirling at Kirkintulloch. This canal was opened with great solemnity, the 28th of July 1790. The proprietors were authorised in their first act to raise 200,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* shares; after which, 50,000 *l.* of the public money was granted to aid the work; in 1783, 212,000 *l.* had been expended, and no dividend or interest had been paid on the shares.

107. FOSS-DYKE CANAL. The general direction of this navigation is nearly S.E. for 11 miles in the counties of Lincoln and Nottingham; its object is a communication between the rivers Trent and Witham, for supplying coals and exporting farm produce.

108. FOSS NAVIGATION. Acts 33 and 41 Geo. III. Direction nearly N. by a crooked course of about 13 miles through the North Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the supply of the city of York, the import of coals for the use of the adjacent country, and to effect a better drainage of the same. This company were authorised to raise 45,400 *l.* by shares of 100 *l.* each. Some years ago a pleasure-boat, made wholly of sheet iron, was tried on this navigation, 12 feet long, and capable of carrying 15 persons, and yet so light that two men could carry it.

109. GLAMORGANSHIRE CANAL. Acts 30 and 36 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for 25 miles in the county of Glamorgan in South Wales. Its objects are the export of the produce of the immense iron, coal, and lime works in the neighbourhood of Merthyr Tydfil, &c. and the supply of the rapidly increasing population thereof; at Eglwysila the Aberdare canal joins, and the Cardiff and Merthyr rail way runs by its side, and joins it at those two places. There is a large aqueduct bridge over the Taw near Gallygare. This company were authorised to raise 100,000 *l.* and to the powers for raising the last 10,000 *l.* this singular condition was annexed, viz. that the whole concern should be completed within two years, after which no further money should be applied except for repairs. At Merthyr there is a famous water-wheel, made of cast-iron, 50 feet diameter, at Mr. Crawshaw's works; the water being conveyed thereto for a great distance in an iron aqueduct.

110. *Glasgow and Saltcoats.* Surveys have been taken for a canal between the Clyde river at Ardrossan, near Saltcoats, and the same river at Glasgow. This canal would connect with the Forth and Clyde, the Monkland, and the Edinburgh and Glasgow: the line is through a country rich in coals and limestone.

111. *GLENKENNS CANAL.* Act 42 Geo. III. Direction first N.E. and then N.W. for about 27 miles in Glenkens, in the county of Kirkcudbright in Scotland; the object of it is the export of the coals, iron-stone, lime, and other minerals with which the country abounds. The company is authorised to raise 45,000 *l.* by shares of 100 *l.* each, but the works are not to commence until 20,000 *l.* are subscribed, and that must be within five years, or the powers of the act are to cease.

112. *GLOUCESTER AND BERKLEY CANAL.* Acts 33, 37, and 45 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for $18\frac{1}{4}$ miles in the county of Gloucester; its object is to shorten the navigation for ships by a serpentine course of 28 miles on the Severn river, between Berkley and Gloucester; near Wheatenhurst it crosses and unites with the Stroudwater canal. This canal is 70 feet wide, and 15 or 18 feet deep in water, and the locks, &c. thereon, are capacious enough to admit ships of 300 tons burthen to pass. The company are authorised to raise 200,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* shares.

113. *Gloucestershire Rail-way.* In the year 1801 it was proposed to construct a rail-way from the Avon river at Bitton below Bath to Sodbury coal-works in Gloucestershire, with branches to Pucklechurch, Haul-lane, Coal-pit-heath in Westerleigh, Smith's tynings, and other collieries, in order to bring their produce to Bath and Bristol, and for the consumption of the interior of the country, by means of the Kennet and Avon canal.

114. *GRAND CANAL, (Ireland.)* This canal was commenced soon after the year 1753; its general direction is nearly west, for $61\frac{1}{2}$ miles through Dublin, Kildare, and King's Counties, in Ireland; it passes a low part of the grand ridge of Ireland, on the Bog of Allen. Its objects are the supply of Dublin with coal, &c., the varied produce of the banks of the Shannon, and opening an inland communication through the country. This canal is said to be 5 feet deep, the locks 80 feet long and 16 wide, in the clear, and built of hewn stone. In 1770 this canal had proceeded from Dublin into the Bog of Allen, when, owing to mismanagement, it stood still for several years, and it was not until the beginning of 1804 that the whole line was finished and opened. The public money granted by parliament to aid this work between 1753 and 1771 amounted to

78,231 *l.*

78,231 *l.* It has been proposed to reduce the tolls or tonnage since the opening of this canal. In 1805 it was proposed to continue a branch from this canal, near Athy, for 9 miles, to the foot of the Doonane Hills, in Queen's county, and thence to tunnel two miles into the hill, to drain its rich veins of coal, and bring out their produce.

115. GRAND JUNCTION CANAL. Acts 33, 34, three of the 35, 36, 38, 41, 43, and two of the 45 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly north-west for $90\frac{1}{4}$ miles, in the counties of Middlesex, Hertford, Buckingham, Bedford (a very small distance), and Northampton. Its principal objects are, a communication between the metropolis and the various canals of the midland counties, the supply of coals, deals, slate, &c. to the several towns on the line and branches, and the export of the agricultural products, lime, flints, &c. of the country through which it passes; at Northampton it joins the Nen river by a rail-way branch, and the same is intended there also to join the Leicestershire and Northamptonshire Union canal. The commencement of this canal is in the river Thames, near the extremity of the tide-way at Brentford creek, and its termination in the Oxford canal at Braunston. From Bull bridge a branch, $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, goes to Paddington, near London, to the town of Rickmansworth; there is a cut of about $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile, with a lock at its entrance; from Bulbourn head a branch extends for $6\frac{1}{4}$ miles to Wendover; from Cofgrove a branch of $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile extends to Stoney or Old Stratford, and thence $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles further to Buckingham; and from Gayton a rail-way branch of 5 miles extends to the river Nen, and the intended termination of the Leicestershire and Northamptonshire Union canal at Northampton. To Watford a branch of 2 miles, and thence about 8 miles farther to St. Albans, has been surveyed and provided for in the acts; another to Aylesbury of about 6 miles, and another to Daventry of $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in length, but these last are not executed. The width of the main line is 36 feet at top, about 24 feet at bottom, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep in water; the other branches vary. The Northampton rail-way is of iron, and double, that is, has two roads for the carriages going different ways. On the line there are 101 locks, besides the 9 spare ones in Wolverton-valley; on the Buckingham branch there are two locks. At White-friars, just above Black-friars-bridge, on the Thames, this company built extensive warehouses, over a dock, in which barges lay afloat from one tide to the next; these are now let to Mr. Pickford, the great waggon and boat-master. At Paddington a spacious basin or straight cut, 400 yards long and 30 wide, has been formed with wharfs at its head, and others are daily extending

extending westward along its sides; behind this, on the north side, is a spacious yard for a vegetable and a hay and straw market, with large sheds, under which loads of those articles can stand in the dry when it rains; and on the south side pens are erected and provision made for a large cattle market. The number of wharfs erected on this extensive line and its branches by individuals is too great for them to be particularized. The number of culverts or small water-courses under the canal and its branches is very great; and on the towing path are many large and high wooden bridges for crossing the entrances to branches, docks, or over streams of water. The tunnel between Stoke-Bruern and Blisworth is 3080 yards in length, 15 feet wide, and 19 feet high, at 60 feet below the top of Blisworth hill, through which it penetrates. Braunston tunnel, between that place and Daventry, is 2045 yards in length: another tunnel was at first intended near King's-Langley for avoiding Cassiobury, and other parks in the Colne valley; but an agreement was afterwards arranged with their owners for a passage through them, instead of tunnelling. Several river and road aqueduct-arches, and aqueduct bridges occur on the line and branches; those over the Brent river, and over Bays-water on the Paddington branch are considerable. The works on this canal commenced at both of its extremities, soon after the passing of the first act; and the tunnel at Braunston being completed, the navigation was opened, in July 1796, as far southward from the Oxford canal, as the great embankment at Weedon Beck; in June 1797, the same was extended to the next great embankment at Bugbrook; and about November, in the same year, to the north end of the intended tunnel at Blisworth. Beginning at the southern end in the Thames, the navigation to Two-waters was completed in June 1798, and in June 1801 the branch therefrom to Paddington was opened; in the year 1799, the canal was completed to Bulbourne, and the branch therefrom to Wendover; in June 1800, it was extended to Fenny-Stratford; and about October 1800 to the south end of the intended tunnel at Blisworth; at the same time a double iron rail-way of near $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length (since removed) was laid across Blisworth Hill, to connect the two parts of the canal, and form the much wished for grand junction; in May 1801, the branch to Buckingham was opened; it was not until March 1805 that the Blisworth tunnel was completed, and the navigation of the whole line opened; and, lastly, in August 1805, the immense Wolverton embankment was opened for improving the same, and avoiding 8 locks, but which locks still remain by its side, as a reserve, in case of accident, to this immense mound of earth, or the three large arches under it.

This

This company were authorised by their first nine acts to raise 1,528,000 *l.* to which their subsequent acts made a considerable addition. The shares are 100 *l.* each; they have at some periods sold as high as 210 *l.* and at others have been down at 65 *l.* Shares in this concern are allowed to be split in such small portions among different holders as $\frac{1}{4}$ th or $12\frac{1}{2}$ *l.* each. Inland coals from the rich and inexhaustible mines with which this and other canals form direct communications, were forbid under severe penalties (although two legislative attempts to enforce the same proved inefficient) to be brought nearer to London than the N.W. end of Grove park in Hertfordshire, until a late act, by which 50,000 tons of such coals are allowed to be brought to Paddington in the current year, on paying a duty equivalent to that paid in the Thames on sea-brought coals. The market at Paddington, after an ineffectual opposition from the city of London, was opened in May 1802, for the sale of fat cattle, hay, straw, corn, vegetables, &c. By the act 41 Geo. III., this company was authorised to lay pipes in certain streets in Paddington, Mary-le-bone, &c. for supplying the inhabitants with water; but at that time, certain millers, whose dams the line had been made to pass through, were not consulted. In June 1801, packet-boats were established, that continue to pass regularly at stated hours during great part of the year, for the conveyance of passengers and parcels between London and Uxbridge; and for some time after the opening of the Buckingham branch, a boat went regularly between Paddington and that town; but the number of passengers and parcels was found inadequate to support the expense. Trading boats are not allowed to pass along this canal except in the day time, unless such as have a special licence from the company for such purpose. Mr. Pickford has a great number of boats, which proceed as regularly day and night upon this canal, and the other canals north of it, as the mail coaches do on the roads, although with less expedition. A common trading boat has been known to arrive at Paddington in 63 hours from Coventry. In December 1799, the experiment was first tried, of bringing fat oxen to London in boats by means of this canal. The act of the 33d of the King provided certain rates, which are to be paid to the Oxford company for goods passing thereon to or from this canal, and this company is bound, since the beginning of 1804, to make up the same to the amount of 10,000 *l.* per annum. The company is also bound to pay annually to the city of London the sum of 600 *l.* for the liberty of making a junction with the Thames; and all goods passing into or out of the same on this canal are to pay $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per ton, to be applied towards improving the middle navigation of the Thames river.

Many

Many plans have been proposed and surveys taken, for branches from this canal, some of which seem feasible, but others too vast for execution.

116. GRAND SURRY CANAL. Act 41 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 12 miles by a crooked course in the county of Surry, and through a small part of Kent; its objects are the supply of the neighbourhood through which it passes with coals, deals, manures, &c. the bringing of vegetables, and other articles for the supply of London: forming a communication between three points of the Thames river, and with the Croydon canal, which it joins near Deptford. There are to be a cut of near $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile to Horsemonger lane; another of $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile to Peckham; another of one mile to But-lane, Deptford; another of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile to his majesty's victualling office and the dock-yard at Deptford, and another of $\frac{1}{8}$ of a mile into Greenland-dock, by which it will again communicate with the Thames river. The company were authorised to raise 60,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* shares; and they pay a rent of 60 *l.* *per annum* to the city of London for communicating with the Thames river. Collateral cuts to the extent of 1500 yards may be made by consent of the land owners. They are also to have a dock or basin for their boats by the side of this canal near the Thames at Rotherhithe; which, with the entrance lock and basin, are on a scale calculated for small ships.

117. GRAND WESTERN CANAL. Act 36 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for about 35 miles in the counties of Devon and Somerset; its objects are a connection between the southern coast and the Bristol channel, the supply of the country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

118. GRANTHAM CANAL. Acts 33 and 39 Geo. III. General direction nearly east by a crooked course of $33\frac{1}{4}$ miles in the counties of Nottingham, Leicester, and Lincoln: its objects are the supply of Grantham and the neighbourhood through its course with coals, lime, deals, &c. and the export of farming products. The company were authorised to raise 124,000 *l.*, the old shares being 100 *l.* each, and the new shares (200 in number) 120 *l.* each. The profits to the proprietors are limited to a dividend of 8 *per cent.* and after 3,000 *l.* are collected and deposited as a fund, the tolls are to be lowered, as much as circumstances will admit.

119. GRISLEY'S CANAL. Act 15 Geo. III. Direction about N.W. in the county of Stafford: its objects are the supply of the town of Newcastle under-line with coals from Apedale collieries, and the export of coals from the mines to the west of it, by means of the Newcastle under-line Junction canal, which now joins it at each of its ends. This canal was constructed

constructed at the sole expense of Sir Nigel Grisley, Bart. In 1796, the Commercial canal was proposed to connect with this canal at each end, as the Newcastle-under-line Junction afterwards did in 1798.

120. GRIMBSY CANAL. Act 36 Geo. III. — This canal has a S. W. direction for $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in Lincolnshire: it is one of the largest cuts in England, and calculated to admit ships of 700 to 1000 tons burthen. The cost is said to have been 14,000 *l.* besides the piling for the foundation; the depth of water is 20 feet.

121. HAMOAZE RIVER. This river, or rather estuary, has nearly a north course for about nine miles, between the counties of Cornwall and Devon on their southern coast: it is frequented by the largest ships of the royal navy.

122. HARTLEPOOL CANAL. This is only a very short cut of 300 yards in length, on the coast of Durham, from the sea into Hartlepool harbour, effected in 1764, at the expense of Sir John H. Duval, through a solid rock, to the great depth of 19 feet.

123. HASLINGDEN CANAL. Act 33 of Geo. III. General direction nearly north for 13 miles in the county of Lancaster; its objects are the export of the rich stores of coal, limestone, &c. on its course, and a communication between Manchester and the Leeds and Liverpool canal. The company are authorised to raise 87,600 *l.*; the amount of a share is 100 *l.*

124. *Headon and Paul Canal.* It is in contemplation to form a canal from the Humber river at Paul to the town of Headon in Holderness, about three miles in the east Riding of Yorkshire: its objects are the supply of Headon with coals and other articles, and the export of agricultural products.

125. HEREFORD AND GLOUCESTER CANAL. Act 31 and 33 Geo. III. General direction nearly N. W. for $35\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Gloucester and Hereford; its object is the export of coals from the neighbourhood of Newent, and of the cyder and agricultural products of the country. On its line are three considerable tunnels, that at Oxenhall is 2192 yards in length; at Cannon-Frome is one of 1320 yards; and near Hereford, another of 440 yards in length. In July 1796, this canal was finished, from the Severn to Newent, and in March 1798, the Oxenhall tunnel was finished, and the navigation extended to Ledbury, and coals were in consequence reduced in price at that town from 24*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* per ton! The company were authorised to raise 55,000 *l.*

126. *Hereford and Lydbrook.* In 1802, it was proposed to construct a rail-way from the Wye river near the bridge in Hereford to join the same river again opposite to Lydbrook.

127. HEYL RIVER, (or *Hale*). The course of this river or rather estuary is nearly south for two miles in the county of Cornwall, on its north-eastern coast.

128. HORNCastle NAVIGATION. Acts 32 and 40 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for about 11 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the supply of Horn-castle and its neighbourhood with coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural products. The company were authorised to raise 45,000 *l.* the amount of each share being 50 *l.* The dividends are not to exceed 8 per cent. but after 1000 *l.* is accumulated as a fund for contingencies, the tolls are to be lowered, to keep the profits within that limit. In September 1802, this navigation, and the basin at Horn-castle, were completed and opened.

129. HUDDERSFIELD CANAL. Acts 33 and 40 Geo. III. General direction south-west for $19\frac{1}{2}$ miles in Yorkshire and Lancashire; it crosses the Grand-Ridge, at a great elevation, by one of the longest tunnels in this kingdom, in a rocky mountain; its objects are the carrying of coals that are found towards both its extremities, the supply of part of the country with lime, the conveyance of farming produce to the great towns, and the forming of a more direct communication between Hull and Manchester and Liverpool. The tunnel through the Stannage Hills near Marsden is three miles in length, near to which, on the summit-level, the company are authorised to make reservoirs to contain 20,000 lock-falls of water, (each 180 cubic yards,) and may make others if these prove insufficient. About the year 1798, that part of the line between Huddersfield and Marsden was completed and opened; in the same year the head of a large reservoir near Marsden-broke, and the torrent of water let down thereby did considerable damage to the country below it. The company are authorised to raise 274,000 *l.* the amount of shares being 100 *l.* These became greatly depreciated in value, about the year 1800, owing principally, it is supposed, to many of the original subscribers not being able to answer the calls for money, by which the works were retarded, and the canal remained in an unproductive state; the Tunnel under the Stannage Hill is now proceeding.

130. HULL RIVER. The course of this river is nearly north for about 12 miles in the East Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the supply of Beverley and the adjacent country with coals, deals, &c. and the supply of Beverley and Hull with farm produce.

131. HULL AND LEVEN CANAL. Acts 41 and 45 Geo. III. Course nearly east for about three miles in the East Riding of Yorkshire: its objects are the supply of Leven town, of lime

to the country east of it, and the export of the agricultural produce thereof for the supply of Hull and Beverley. Mrs. Charlotte Bethel is the sole proprietor.

132. HUMBER RIVER. Act 23 Henry VIII.—This noble river, or rather estuary, has nearly a west direction for about 40 miles between the counties of York and Lincoln. The tide flows with great rapidity through its whole length, and the depth of water is sufficient for ships of considerable burthen, which trade in vast numbers to the port of Hull, and with the numerous eastern rivers which connect with it. In 1802 the Cottingham and Hull canal was proposed, to connect with this river at Hull; in the same year, the Keyingham-Level navigation was proposed to join at Stone-creek. In 1805 the Headon and Paul canal was proposed to connect with it at Paul.

133. IDLE RIVER. The course of this river is nearly west for about 10 miles, in Nottinghamshire.

134. INVERNESS AND FORT-WILLIAM CANAL. Acts 43, 44, and 45 Geo. III.—This grand or Caledonian canal, as it is sometimes called, has nearly a south-west direction for 59 miles, in Inverness and Argyle shires, in the Highlands of Scotland; it passes the grand ridge, through a low part intersected by deep lakes or loches: its object is a connexion between the East and West Seas, by Linnke Loch and Murray Firth, for large ships drawing near 20 feet of water, and for avoiding the northern voyage by the Orkneys, or through Pentland Firth. It has in all 23 locks, besides the sea or entrance locks. This canal is 110 feet wide at top, 50 at bottom, and 20 feet deep; the locks are 152 feet long and 38 feet wide. Twenty-two miles of this navigation are through a surprising fresh-water lake, called Loch Ness, of $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in breadth, the middle part being 129 fathoms in depth! and its bottom muddy; this loch and the next never freeze, and it is said that their waters do not corrode iron. Loch Lochy is another large lake, $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, and from $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in width, and its greatest depth 76 fathoms, through which this navigation passes: it has a secure little harbour, 200 fathoms long and 150 fathoms wide, at its eastern end. Another smaller lake is found on this line, called Loch Oich, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ of a mile wide, and 26 fathoms in depth in the deepest part, its bottom being a soft mud. Loch Doughfour, the remaining one of the four, is $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile long, about $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile wide in its widest part, and about 40 feet deep. The number of swing bridges is 23; there are 5 culverts with 1 to 4 arches each, and an aqueduct bridge of 4 ten-feet arches at Ley Bridge: the deep-cutting near Laggan is to be $45\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep on the summit, and is estimated to cost 11,262 £ . New courses are required to be

cut for the river Spean, and at Fort Augustus for the river Nefs; the steep hills adjoining, rendering it necessary for the canal to occupy the old bed of the river for some distance in those places. A large weir is to be made at the east end of Loch Doughfour, to hold up its waters to the level of Loch Nefs, and several smaller weirs are to be made. Loch Oich is to be deepened 1540 yards in length, at the expense of 11,550 *l.* This canal is most amply supplied with water on the summit, not only for the lockage, but for the working of mills out of the different pounds, which will doubtless hereafter prove of immense advantage to the country. The estimates carry the expense of this undertaking to 474,531 *l.* exclusive of 23,000 *l.* for land and mooring-chains. By the first act 20,000 *l.* by the next 75,000 *l.* and by the last 50,000 *l.* of the public money were granted, for carrying on this great work.

135. **ITCHING RIVER.** Acts 16 and 17 of Cha. II. and 7 and 35 of Geo. III.—The general direction of this navigation is nearly north, for about 14 miles, in Hampshire; its objects are the supply of Winchester with coals, deals, &c. and of Southampton with flour and other agricultural products, and the trade between these towns. At Northam it is joined by the Southampton and Salisbury canal. This navigation is the sole property of James D'Arcy, Esq.; and he and his predecessors were the sole carriers, or nearly so, thereon, until 1795, when commissioners were named, in the act, for fixing rates of tonnage, on payment of which it is in future to be a free navigation.

136. **IVEL RIVER.** Act 30 Geo. II. Direction nearly south, for about 11 miles, in the county of Bedford; its objects are the supply of the towns of Biggleswade, Shefford, and the adjoining country, with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce.

137. **IVELCHESTER AND LANGPORT CANAL.** Act 35 Geo. III. Direction nearly east for about 7 miles in the county of Somerset: its objects are the import of coals and export of farming products. The company were authorised to raise 8,000 *l.* the amount of shares being 50 *l.* each.

138. **KENNET RIVER.** The course of this river is nearly east for about 20 miles in the county of Berks; its objects are the supply of Newbury, and the export of farming products.

139. **KENNET AND AVON CANAL.** Acts 34, 36, 38, 41, and 45 Geo. III. General direction nearly east for 55½ miles in the counties of Somerset, Wilts, and Berks; its objects are a communication between Bristol, Bath, and London, and the supply of the country west of Hungerford with coals from the mines connected with the Somersetshire Coal canal, which joins at Monkton Combe; at Widford it connects with the Dorset and Somerset

Somerset canal, and at Semington with the Wilts and Berks canal. Progress was first made in completing parts of this canal at its eastern end, and in October 1798, it was opened from Reading to Hungerford; in July 1799 the same was opened to Great Bedwin, near the beginning of the summit: in May 1801, the other end of the line was opened from Bath to Devizes. The company were authorised to raise 810,000*l.* besides a farther sum by the last act; the original shares were 120*l.* each, but a great number of defaulters appeared among the subscribers, and those remaining being called on for 17*l.* 4*s.* 7½*d.* on each, made the amount of these old shares 137*l.* 4*s.* 7½*d.* each, before the act of 41 Geo. III. restrained any further calls on their shares, and created a new set of shares of the amount of 60*l.* each. The shares of several discontented proprietors were directed to be purchased. This canal passes through Sydney-gardens near Bath, which are laid out and appropriated to pleasurable parties like our Vauxhall gardens. A canal passing through nearly this tract of country was proposed in 1754. The new shares in 1802 bore a premium, notwithstanding no interest is to be received on them until the line is completed, which was required by the first act to be done in 1806. Some years ago it was proposed to extend a branch of the Basingstoke canal to join this at Hampstead: in 1796 there was an intention of extending this canal by the side of the Avon to Bristol.

140. KETLEY CANAL. The general direction of this canal, or water-level, is about E.; originally it was about 1½ mile in length, in the county of Salop; its objects are the conveyance of coals, iron-ore, and lime-stone, the export of heavy iron goods, &c. it was contrived by Mr. William Reynolds, and cut in 1788 at the sole expense of Messrs. William Reynolds and Co. and in the year 1793, 1 mile and 188 yards of this level at its east end were sold to the Shrewsbury company, and made part of their canal.

141. *Keyingham-Level.* In the year 1802, a survey was made for a navigation, and drainage-cuts, from the Humber river at Stone-creek, to Roofs-bridge and Owstwick-carr gate, in the East-Riding of Yorkshire, the estimated expense being 1500*l.* the canal was proposed to pass near the town of Keyingham, its objects being the import of coals, &c. and the export of agricultural articles.

142. KIDWELLY CANAL. The length of this canal is about 3½ miles, in Caermarthenshire, in South Wales, it is the private property of Mr. Keymer; its object is the export of lime and coals.

143. LAGAN NAVIGATION (*Ireland*). This navigation is
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established with the view of facilitating the working of the collieries with which it connects; public money was advanced to complete it between 1753 and 1770, amounting to 40,304*l*.

144. LANCASTER CANAL. Acts 32, 33, 36 and 40 Geo. III. General direction nearly S. for 75½ miles in the counties of Westmoreland and Lancaster; its objects are the interchange of the lime-stone of the northern parts, for the coals and cannel of the southern parts of the line, the supply of Lancaster and Preston, &c. it is to connect with the sea at Glasson Dock by a cut of 4 miles from Galgate on the line of the canal; it crosses the Loyne and Ribble rivers, but without connecting with them, and it likewise passes under the Leeds and Liverpool canal. This canal is 7 feet deep, the boats are 56 feet long and 14 feet wide, carrying 60 tons. There are two tunnels, one at Hincaster near Leven's Park of about 800 yards long, and another through the Whittle Hills near Chorley. At Lancaster there is a most surprising aqueduct bridge 51 feet high, over the Loyne river, consisting of 5 arches of 70 feet span each. There are other aqueducts over the Ribble at Preston, the Wyre at Garstang, the Beeloo near Bethorn, &c. and it is passed on an aqueduct 60 feet high near Bark-mill, not far from Wigan, by the Leeds and Liverpool canal. The company is authorised to raise 414,000*l*. in 100*l*. shares, and 200,000*l*. more in shares of 30*l*. each. In July 1796, the last arch of the Lancaster aqueduct was completed: in September 1805, it was stated that the shares divided 1*l*. per cent. From Bolton to Lancaster and thence to Preston it was opened in November 1797, and in a few years after the whole of the long level was completed. In June 1803, the Whittle tunnel was completed, and 1½ mile of the rail-way, so that coals passed from West Houghton to Bramber-bridge, and in 1805, the remainder of the rail-way was opened for conveying coals to Preston, Lancaster, &c. At Hest this canal passes along close to the sea beach.

145. LARK RIVER. This river (sometimes called the Mil-denhall) has its course nearly S. E. for about 22 miles in the county of Suffolk, after skirting the bounds of Cambridge for some miles. It is generally very short of water in the autumn. In 1789, this river was proposed to be crossed by the Bishopstortford and Wilton intended canal; and in 1802 it was proposed to be joined at Bury St. Edmund's by the Stowmarket and Bury rail-way.

146. LEA RIVER. Acts 12 Geo. II. and 7, 19, and 45 Geo. III. General direction almost north for about 28 miles between the counties of Middlesex and Essex and in Hertfordshire; its objects are the supply of Hertford and all the surrounding county with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming
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ing products, of which malt from Ware forms a considerable part. At Bromley near Bow it connects with the Limehouse canal, and near Hoddesdon it is joined by the Stort river. In 1772, and again in 1802, this river was proposed to be joined at Waltham-Abbey by the London and Waltham-Abbey, with another junction therewith at Lee-bridge; and in 1792, it was proposed to be joined at Hertford by the Leicester and London canal. Several years ago the Biggleswade and Hertford canal was proposed to join this river at Hertford. Between Hertford and Ware, the New River or aqueduct for the supply of London, has its rise, partly out of the chalk hills, and partly by a feeder out of this river, and pursues its devious course for near 40 miles. This great work was begun by Sir Hugh Middleton in 1608; in 1773, Mr. James Sharp suggested the making of the New River navigable, and continuing it by a level cut to the Thames near Reading. In 1803, Mr. John Rennie was employed by government to survey the lower part of the course of the Lea River, and to construct embankments across, for filling this extensive vale with water in case of an invasion: the gates intended to produce these effects, are vessels that can on the shortest notice be floated to and sunk in their proper places, to stop the water, as before described.

147. *Leatherhead and Thames Rail-way.* In 1801, it was proposed to make a rail-way from a basin to be made on the banks of the Thames, in West Moulsey (opposite Sunbury) to the town of Leatherhead in Surry, through the parishes of Walston, Cobham, Stoke-Dawbernon, Little Bookham, Great Bookham, and Fetcham.

148. *LEE RIVER, (Ireland.)* For improving the navigation of this river, the Irish parliament between 1753 and 1770, granted 2,000 *l.*

149. *LEEDS AND LIVERPOOL CANAL.* Acts 10, 23, 30, and 34 Geo. III. General direction between N. E. and E. by a very crooked course of 130 miles in the counties of Lancaster and York; it crosses the grand ridge by a tunnel, near Colne, and at Red-Moss and Aspule crosses the Haslingden and Liverpool branch of the grand ridge. Its objects are a communication between the ports of Liverpool and Hull, the export of the immense stores of coals, cannel, and lime-stone, that are found on parts of its course, and the supply of the great towns thereon with the agricultural products of the intermediate country. At Brier's-mill it connects with the Douglas navigation (now belonging to this company, by a purchase under 23 Geo. III.) near Bark-mill not far from Wigan it crosses the Lancaster canal (but is 60 feet above it on an aqueduct-bridge). At Church it connects with the Haslingden canal, at Skipton with Thanet's canal,

canal, and at Windhill with the Bradford canal. From this canal there is a cut to Ighton-hill collieries, another to Altham collieries; and provision is made for cuts to be made by the earl of Balcarras and Mr. Shuttleworth between their coal-works and the line. The whole lockage is $840\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 91 locks, which are each 70 feet in length, and $15\frac{1}{2}$ feet in width; the breadth of the canal at top is 42 feet, and it is $4\frac{1}{4}$ feet deep in water. At Leeds there is a fine basin, and there are spacious warehouses belonging to this company at the north-east corner of Liverpool town, and it was intended in 1801, to construct a new basin from the North Graving-Dock on this canal, to the top of Plumbe-street. At Foulridge there is a tunnel of 1030 yards in length, and 23 yards below the highest point of the hill; the soil of which proved so very loose, that only 700 yards could be worked under-ground, the remainder was obliged to be opened from above, from 10 to 20 yards deep, and 20 to 30 yards wide at the top; although it was supported with immense labour and expense by timbers to prevent its falling, until the tunnel arch was formed, which is 18 feet high and 17 feet wide within-side; it is arched with stone. At Furnloy near Burnley, there is another tunnel. At Cottingley below Bingley, and near Gargrave, there are considerable aqueduct bridges over the Ayre river, and several lesser ones in different places. In 1770, the eastern end of the line was completed from Leeds to Holme-bridge, a distance of $33\frac{1}{2}$ miles; about the end of 1794 this was extended to near Foulridge. May 1, 1796, the Foulridge tunnel was completed and the line opened to Burnley. In May 1801, the Furnloy tunnel was finished, and the navigation extended to Enfield within $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles of Blackburn; and in July 1801, the Altham branch was opened. The western end of the line was begun as early as the other, and in 1770 the same was opened from Liverpool to the Douglas old navigation at Newborough, 28 miles; and on 19th October 1774, the present navigation was completed to Wigan. This company was authorised to raise 600,000 £ . the amount of shares 100 £ . About 1794, a branch of the Manchester Bolton and Bury was proposed to join this canal at Red-Moss near Wigan. In September 1802, it was proposed to make a branch from this canal near Wigan to Bridgewater's canal at Pennington; also a branch or rail-way from it to Low-hall collieries.

150. LEICESTER NAVIGATION. Acts 31, 34, (for Ashby Canal) and 37 Geo. III. General direction about south, following nearly the course of the Soar River, for 14 miles in the county of Leicester; its objects are the supply of Leicester with coals, deals, and general merchandize, the export of coals and limestone from the mines on its branches, and the farming pro-

ducts of the country. From the bason at Loughborough, a rail-way branch of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and a rise of 185 feet extends westward to a bason at Forest-lane, at the east end of the Charnwood Forest water-level. From the west end of the water-level, a rail-way extends $\frac{2}{3}$ of a mile further to Clouds-hill lime-works, and there connects, or very nearly so, with a branch of the Ashby-de-la-Zouch canal; there is a short rail-way branch of six chains to Barrow-hill lime-works. In December 1793, the part of the line between Loughborough and Sielby, near Mount Sorrel, was opened, and in February 1794 the remainder of the same to Leicester was opened. The company was authorised to raise 84,000 *l*.

151. *Leicester and London Canal.* About the year 1792 printed propofals and a plan were circulated for a canal from the Leicester, intended as a rival to the Grand Junction, and to form the shortest communication between London, Liverpool, Hull, and Lynn, and the intermediate large trading towns, mines, &c.

152. LEICESTER AND MELTON-MOWBRAY NAVIGATION. Acts 31 and 40 Geo. III. General direction nearly E. following the courses of the Wreak and Eye rivers, for about 12 miles, in the county of Leicester; its objects are the supply of Melton Mowbray with coals, deals, &c. and the export of the farming products of the country. The company were authorised to raise 40,000 *l*.

153. LEICESTERSHIRE AND NORTHAMPTONSHIRE UNION CANAL. Acts 33 and 45 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.E. by a crooked course of $43\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the counties of Leicester and Northampton; its objects are the formation of a junction between London, Hull, and Lynn; the supply of the country through which it passes with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products; it is to connect at Northampton with a rail-way branch of the Grand Junction. There are four tunnels on this line, viz. at Foxton, of 1056 yards in length; at Kelmarsh, of 990 yards in length; at Saddington, of 880 yards in length, and at Oxenden, of 286 yards in length. On Oxenden and Kelmarsh brooks are the aqueducts for the supply over the summit-level, but flood-waters alone are to be taken. There are a great number of small aqueducts over the streams which it passes. In March 1800, the tunnel at Saddington was finished, and the line opened from Leicester to Gumley, a distance of 17 miles; but small progress appears to have been since made with the other three tunnels, and the remainder of the line, intended to form the union. By the first act the company were authorised to raise 300,000 *l*. shares 100 *l*. each; the last act was for varying some parts of the line and amending the former one. About the year 1793, the Uppingham canal was
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in contemplation, and its junction with this canal is provided for in the first act.

154. LEOMINSTER CANAL. Acts 31 and 36 Geo. III.—General direction nearly W. by a crooked course of $45\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the counties of Worcester, Salop, and Hereford; its objects are the supply of Leominster and the country with coals from the Pinfax mines near its eastern end, and the export of iron, lime, and agricultural products. At Pinfax is a tunnel of 3850 yards, and the other at Soufnant is 1250 yards in length. There are considerable aqueduct-bridges over the Rea river at Knighton, over the Teme at Woferton, and over the Lugg at Kingsland. In July 1796 the difficult tunnel at Putnal-field in Soufnant was finished, and in November 1796, near 20 miles of canal, from Mamble coal-works to the town of Leominster were opened, and coals, which before sold there at 1s. 6d. per cwt. were at once reduced to 9d. per cwt. ! On the 1st of June 1797, the entrance of the canal from the Severn was opened: since which considerable progress has been made in the works: in May 1805, the Pinfax mining company was proposed, for opening new coal and iron mines near that place, on the line of the canal, which was expected to facilitate its completion. The Leominster company have been authorised to raise 370,000 l. About the year 1794, the Welshpool and Leominster canal was proposed to join this at Woferton.

155. LIFFEY RIVER, (*Ireland.*) The direction of this river is nearly west, in Dublin county, from the Bay of Dublin to the entrance basin of the Grand Canal in Dublin city. In 1800 it was proposed to avoid the bar at the mouth of the Liffey, by cutting a new channel or canal for ships from Dunleary to Ringstead dock; it was also proposed to make Dalkey sound a safe harbour, and to make a cut from thence to the Grand Canal basin; the bill for this purpose was passed by the commons, but was rejected by the house of lords.

156. LIMEHOUSE CANAL. The direction of this canal is about N.E. for $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in the county of Middlesex; its object is to shorten the navigation between the Lea river and the port of London, by avoiding the circuit round the Isle of Dogs. This canal was cut at the expense of the city of London, in an early part of the present reign. In 1773 a cut from the intended London and Waltham-Abbey canal was intended to join this near Limehouse church.

157. LIMERICK CANAL, (*Ireland.*) This canal was cut near 40 years ago from the town of Leitrim to a morass within a short distance, for the purpose of bringing turfs, to supply the town of Limerick with fuel.

157. Liskeard

158. *Liskeard Canal.* In 1777, Mr. Edmund Leach proposed a canal, or rather a system of water-levels and inclined-planes, from the tide-way in the Looe river, at Sand-place in Morval to Bark-mill-bridge in St. Clear. The estimate was 17,500*l.*; the objects, the carrying up of lime and sea-sand for manure, and exporting corn, &c.

159. *London Canal.* In July 1802, a survey was made for a canal, about in a west direction, for near 7 miles, in the county of Middlesex: commencing in the London Docks, (and thereby communicating with the Thames river,) to pass West's-gardens, the mount in White-chapel road, and Bethnal-green New road, across Hackney road, through Middlesex-place across Kingland road, near Iron-mongers' alms-houses, to pass north of Lady Lumley's alms-houses at Hoxton, across the city road below the turnpike-gate, across Goswell-street, south of Goswell-place, across St. John's-street, north of Taylor's brew-house, under the field south of the New-river head, over the valley at Bagnigge-wells, across Gray's Inn-lane at the west corner of the Welsh Charity-school, across the New road to the east corner of Bedford nursery, across Tottenham court road between St. James's burying-ground and the New-river reservoir, past the fronts of the Queen's-head and Artichoke public house, and across the Edgware road to the basin of the Grand Junction canal at Paddington, the rise in this distance being about 90 feet. The great number of bridges required, the passing of the field near Islington full of water-pipes in all directions, belonging to the New-river company, by an arch under the same, and a large embankment or aqueduct bridge near Bagnigge-wells, were difficulties in the way of this project, but to which the subscription for shares (which almost immediately filled to the amount of 400,000*l.*) would have been equal; had not the inability of the Grand Junction company to furnish the water necessary for the lockage, and the opposition of several powerful land owners, on account of its making some alterations necessary in their building projects, frustrated the scheme altogether for the present. The Western branch of the Grand Junction was in contemplation at the time this canal was intended, and water was proposed to be obtained thereby from the Thames for this canal, the Colne millers having it unfortunately in their power to prevent any being obtained from that river. After the opposing interests were found too strong to leave any prospects of carrying this canal, a faint effort was made to accomplish a rail-way, through nearly the same line, but with no better success. In 1773, Mr. Robert Whitworth made a survey for the city of London, and recommended a line of canal from the Lea river at Lee-bridge, to
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near the same spot which the Grand Junction basin now occupies at Paddington: it was intended as branches east and west of the London and Waltham-Abbey canal.

160. *London Lynn and Norwich.* In 1785, Mr. John Phillips endeavoured to call the public attention to a canal between the Ouse river at the port of Lynn, and the Thames river at Lime-house with a branch to the Yare river at Norwich. He stated that he could execute this canal, 36 feet wide, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep, for 200,000*l.*; and that 28,000 oak trees, to be planted on the banks of this canal, will, in 50 years, repay all its expenses within 60,000*l.* In 1802, an effort was made to revive this or a similar scheme, and to be denominated the North London Canal.

161. *London and Waltham-Abbey.* In 1773, an engineer was employed by the city of London to survey the line for a canal between the centre of the quarters in Moorfields, London, to the river Lea at Waltham-Abbey; a distance of 14 miles, almost in a north direction in the counties of Middlesex and Hertford. The width was to be 60 feet, and depth $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet; the whole expense was estimated at 98,229*l.* In 1802, this or a similar scheme seems to have been in contemplation, but to join the Thames near Bell-wharf in Shadwell instead of the Lime-house cut.

162. *LOOE RIVER.* The general direction of this navigation is nearly N. for about $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles on the south coast of Cornwall; its objects are the carrying up of coals, and sea-sand as manure, and the export of agricultural products.

163. *LOUGHBOROUGH NAVIGATION.* Act 16 Geo. III.—General direction nearly S. for about 9 miles, following the course of the Sour river, except in the last mile, which is a new cut; at the basin, 300 yards from its south end, it is joined by the line of the Leicester navigation and by the Charnwood-Forest rail-way branch belonging thereto. Its objects are as various as the trade of the Trent, and the wants of Leicester and other great towns; it forms also part of the line of communication which the Leicestershire and Northamptonshire Union canal is to open.

164. *LOUTH NAVIGATION.* The general direction of this navigation is nearly S.W. for 14 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the supply of Louth, and the adjacent country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce. The estimate of expense was 15,600*l.*

165. *LOYNE RIVER.* The general direction of this river (sometimes called the Lune) is nearly N.E. for about 7 miles in the county of Lancaster; its object is the foreign trade of Lancaster, particularly in cabinet-maker's wares, a branch of the
Lancaster

Lancaster canal is to connect with it at Glasson, where a spacious wet-dock is intended. With 9,030 inhabitants; this river commences in the Irish sea at Sunderland point, and terminates at Lancaster old bridge, some distance below Mr. Rennie's famous aqueduct bridge over this river. It appears, that in the year 1799, 52 vessels cleared out of this river for the West Indies with 11,669 tons of goods in more than 90,000 packages, worth $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. In October 1799, it was in contemplation to construct a spacious dock at Thornbush for large ships, with a canal from thence of 6 miles in length through Glasson-dock, and nearly up to the town of Lancaster, to be wide and deep enough for the largest vessels that trade to that place.

166. LYNN RIVER. The general direction of this river (sometimes called the Lenne, the Nar, or the Setchy) is nearly S.E. by a crooked course of about 15 miles in the county of Norfolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

167. *Maidenhead and Isleworth.* In 1770, engineers were employed by the city of London, to survey the line of a canal from the Thames at Isleworth, to the same river again below Bolter's-lock near Taplow-mill, about 1 mile above Maidenhead-bridge, and at the lower end or termination of the 3d district of the Thames and Isis navigation; the length of this line is $19\frac{1}{2}$ miles with a rise of $71\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The canal was proposed to be 50 feet wide and 4 deep, with cuts to the Thames at Windsor, and near Laleham; the estimate of expense was 47,885 £ . A bill was brought into parliament, but the opposition of the land owners proved fatal to it; although, as appears, that the length of the river-navigation is $37\frac{1}{2}$ miles in this distance, and greatly obstructed by shallows. In 1791, this scheme was revived, and in 1794, engineers were employed to revise this line. The tolls at first proposed were $\frac{1}{2}d.$ per ton per mile on all articles; out of this revenue, it was proposed to improve the river navigation between Mortlake and Bolter's-lock: and to raise the necessary sums on life annuities, so that after a fund was established for repairs and management, the canal might at length become free for the public use. At Bolter's-lock the Reading and Maidenhead canal was proposed to join this canal, by which the navigation from London westward would have been amazingly shortened and improved.

168. MANCHESTER ASHTON AND OLDHAM CANAL. Acts 32, 33, 38, 40, and 45 of Geo. III. General direction nearly E. for about 7 miles in the counties of Lancaster and Cheshire; its objects are the supply of Manchester and Stockport with coals, cannel, stone, lime, &c. and forming part of the intended direct communication between Liverpool, Manchester, and
Hull,

Hull, by means of the Huddersfield and other canals; by means of its Duckenfield branch it communicates with the Peak-Forest canal. This canal is 33 feet wide at top, 15 feet at bottom, and 5 feet deep in water. This company were authorised by the first 4 acts to raise 170,000 *l.*, and a further sum by the last act; amount of shares 100 *l.* The line of this canal was completed between Manchester and Ashton about the end of the year 1796, and in January 1797, the Stockport branch was opened. In 1802, the shares in this concern were 20 *l.* below par.

169. MANCHESTER BOLTON AND BURY CANAL. Acts 31 and 41 Geo. III.—General direction N.W. for about 11 miles in the county of Lancaster; its objects are a communication between the great manufacturing towns of Manchester, Bolton, and Bury, and the carriage of coals and other articles for their supply, and forming part of the line of communication between Manchester and the Leeds and Liverpool canal. This company were authorised by their first act to raise 97,000 *l.*, and a further sum by the late act. About 1794, it was in contemplation to make a branch westward from Bolton, to connect with the Leeds and Liverpool canal. In 1796, it was proposed to extend a branch from the basin in Salford parish to Old-field-lane in that town; and, in 1799, it was in contemplation to build an aqueduct bridge over the Irwell, and connect this canal with Bridgewater's canal.

170. MARKET-WEIGHTON CANAL. Act 12 Geo. III. General direction nearly N. for about 11 miles in the East Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the conveyance of coals, deals, &c. to Market-Weighton and the surrounding country, the export of farming products, and the better drainage of the fen lands through which it passes.

171. *Mawgan Canal.* In 1775, a narrow canal was cut of 6 or 7 miles in length; from Port Mawgan near Trenance on the N.W. coast of Cornwall, to within 3 miles of St. Columb Major; it was intended for bringing up coals and sea-sand for manure, and for carrying down china-stone and clay, but several of the adventurers being ruined, the scheme was abandoned.

172. MEDINA RIVER. The direction of this navigation is south, and nearly straight for $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the Isle of Wight; its object is the supply of Newport and the central parts of the island with coals and other articles.

173. MEDWAY RIVER (*lower district.*) Acts 32 and 42 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 27 miles by a bending course in the county of Kent; its objects are the import of coals, deals, and other articles, and the export of Kentish-Rag lime-stone, fullers-earth, farming produce, &c. Near its northern termination, it connects with the east Swale
or,

or tide-way passage, of about 15 miles in length south of Sheppy island, connecting with the Thames near Whitstable; and, at Nicholson's ship-yard in Strood it is joined by the Thames and Medway canal.

174. MEDWAY RIVER (*upper district*). The general direction of this part of the river is S.W. for about 12 miles in the county of Kent; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and export of lime-stone, fullers-earth, farming-produce, &c.

Medway and Rother. In 1801, a survey was made for a canal from the Rother river to the Stour river at Canterbury, with a branch to the Medway river at Yalden-lees, through the counties of Sussex and Kent; its objects were the supply of the interior country with coals and other articles, the export of timber and farming products, and forming a communication between the south coast at Rye-harbour and the Thames river, &c.

175. MENAI STREIGHT. This streight separates Anglesea from North Wales, and has nearly a N.E. direction for about 16 miles, through which the tide flows. In 1801, and 1802, it was in contemplation to build a cast-iron bridge over this streight at Swelly rocks near Porthaethavy Ferry not far from Bangor.

176. MERSEY AND IRWELL NAVIGATION. Acts 7 Geo. I. and 34 Geo. III. General direction is nearly east by a crooked course of 50 miles in the county of Lancaster, and skirting the county of Chester; its objects are most important, particularly in the immense trade between Liverpool and Manchester, and Hull, also by four different routes across the grand-ridge; the navigations immediately connecting with it are, at Ellesmereport in Netherpool, where it is joined by the Ellesmere canal; at Weston by the Weaver river; at Runcorn-Gap, and again at Manchester, by Bridgewater's canal, besides being crossed thereby on Barton aqueduct; at Fiddlers-ferry, and also at Sankey Brook, by the Sankey canal; and at Manchester, near the junction of Medlock Brook, by the Manchester Bolton and Bury canal. The famous wet docks at Liverpool are an appendage to the Mersey navigation, and are indeed a part of that river, from not being excavated in solid ground, where houses formerly stood, as they did on the site of the London Docks; but all of them, except the old Dock, which was a natural creek or pool, have been formed in the front of the town, by embankments in the river, which is here $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile wide. In 1797 the tolls in these docks amounted to upwards of 13,300 *l.* annually, and their yearly expenses to 5,100 *l.* but a debt of 113,419 *l.* still remained on them.

177. MONKLAND CANAL. The general direction of this canal is nearly east, for about 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Lan-
nerk

nerk in Scotland; its objects are the supply of Glasgow, Paisley, &c. with coals from Monkland collieries, and the export of farming products.

178. MONMOUTHSHIRE CANAL. Acts 32, 37, and 42 Geo. III.—The general direction of this compound of canals and rail-ways is nearly north, for $17\frac{3}{4}$ miles, in the counties of Monmouth and Brecknock in South Wales; its object is the export of coals, lime, and iron from the country through which it passes; near Pontypool it is joined by the Brecknock and Abergavenny canal, at Pill-Gwenlly it joins to the Sirhowy tram-road (by means of the Uske river), and at Count-y-Billa farm, and at Risca, it joins the same again by different branches belonging to this company. In Februrary 1796, the canal was completed from the Uske to Pontypool, and in the same year the Beaufort Branch was completed. This company were authorised by their different acts to raise 275,330*l.* in 100*l.* shares: in 1802 these divided 2*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* each annually; it is provided, that after the profits amount to 10 *per cent.* and 1000*l.* is accumulated as a fund, the tolls are to be reduced, first on coals, so as to keep the profits within that amount.

179. MONTGOMERYSHIRE CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for 27 miles in the county of Salop, and of Montgomery in North Wales; its objects are the supply of the country with lime, the export of its farming products, and of coals, slate, free-stone, iron, lead, &c. from different parts near the line: it connects with the Severn river at Welshpool. In August 1797, 16 miles of the canal were finished and opened from the Ellesmere branch to Garthmill near Berriew. The company were authorised to raise 92,000*l.*; the amount of each share 100*l.*

180. NEATH CANAL. Acts 31 and 38 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly N.W. for about 14 miles in the county of Glamorgan in South Wales; its object is the export of coals, iron, lime-stone, &c. from the mines and works near the line. This company were authorised to raise 35,000*l.*; they are authorised to make rail-way branches to any place within 4 miles of the line, by consent of the land-owners. In 1798 this canal was nearly finished, except about two miles at the lower end.

181. NEATH RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is nearly N. for about 4 miles in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales: its chief objects are the supply and trade of Neath, and the export of the coals and iron brought down by the canals.

182. NEN RIVER (*lower district*). Acts Geo. II., and 34 Geo. III. General direction about S.W. by a very crooked course of nearly 75 miles in the counties of Cambridge and Huntingdon,

Huntingdon, and skirting those of Lincoln and Northampton. As all the rivers, and all drains almost in the fens in the country through which this river passes, are embanked on both sides, and owing to the deficiency of fall are almost still water, there is a great number of smaller navigable branches intersecting and crossing each other in all directions. The powers of the commissioners under the above acts, extend only about 30 miles downwards to Peterborough bridge; the navigations through the fens are preserved by the fen corporation in maintaining their drainage works.

183. *NEN RIVER, (upper district.)* The general direction of this navigation is nearly S.W. for about 23 miles in Northamptonshire; its objects are the supply of Northampton and the surrounding country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural productions. The communication between Lynn, London, Liverpool, Manchester, &c. which it now effects is also important.

NEW RIVER. See *Lea River*.

184. *Newark and Bottesford.* In 1793, a canal was intended from the Dean river at Newark to the long level of the Grantham canal at Stainwith. In the Grantham, act 33 Geo. III., the tolls are provided that are to be paid at the junction of these canals.

185. *Newcastle and Carlisle.* In 1795, an engineer surveyed the line for a canal from the Tyne river at Newcastle to the Eden river at Carlisle, through Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland, crossing the grand ridge for a connection between the east and west seas; and having a collateral branch of narrow canal and inclined-planes to the elevated mining districts of Weardale and Teesdale forests, &c. the estimate being 355,067*l*.

186. *Newcastle and Haydon-Bridge.* In 1796, and again in March 1802, it was in contemplation to make a canal nearly following the course of the Tyne river, between Newcastle and Haydon, in Northumberland and Durham.

187. *Newcastle and Maryport.* Some years previous to 1801, a canal was projected between the tide-way in Maryport harbour and the Tyne river at Newcastle, crossing the grand ridge, and passing between the two seas, through Cumberland and Durham.

188. *NEWCASTLE (under-line) CANAL.* Act 35 Geo. III. General direction nearly west, by a very bending course of 3 miles in the county of Stafford: its objects are the bringing of Caldon lime for manure, and the export of coals and farming products: it is considerably elevated. It was completed in a

short time after the act was obtained, the company being authorised to raise 10,000*l.*; the amount of shares is only 50*l.* each.

189. **NEWCASTLE (under-line) JUNCTION CANAL.** Act 38 Geo. III. General direction about N.W. for a short distance, in two detached parts, in the county of Stafford; its objects are the export of coals and agricultural produce. This company were authorised to raise 12,000*l.*, the amount of their shares being 50*l.* only.

190. **NEW CHAPEL CANAL.** The general direction of this canal is east, by a bending course of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales; it is the sole property of the owner of the land, and for whose improvement, by draining and otherwise, it was principally undertaken.

191. *Newport and Stone.* In June 1797, it was proposed to make a canal from the Donnington Wood canal (the marquis of Stafford's) at Pave-lane, near Newport, by Eccleshall, to the Trent and Mersey canal, near Stone, a course of about 18 miles in the counties of Salop and Stafford, crossing the grand ridge; a branch was proposed to Market-Drayton: its object was the opening of a direct communication between Shrewsbury, and other places on or near the upper parts of the Severn, and the Trent and Mersey canal, for supplying the intermediate country with coals and lime, &c. In 1765, the Tern-bridge and Winsford canal was proposed, and intended to pass through nearly the same ground as the middle parts of this canal; as was also the Sandbach on another occasion.

192. **NEWRY CANAL (Ireland.)** This canal, from the tide-way at Fadham point to the town of Newry, was completed in February 1761, by which brigs of 80 or 100 tons burthen can come up to Newry; it was intended to extend this to the Blackwater navigation, for conveying the Dungannon and Drumglafs coals to Dublin; and the Irish parliament, between 1753 and 1771, granted different sums for this purpose, amounting to 11,434*l.*

193. **NITH RIVER.** The course of this river (sometimes called the Nid) is nearly north for about 9 miles between Dumfries and Kirkcudbright counties, in Scotland; its object is the supply of Dumfries.

194. **NOTTINGHAM CANAL.** Act Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. by a crooked course of about 15 miles in the county of Nottingham; its objects are the export of coals from the several mines near it, and of farming products, importing lime, deals, &c. In 1802, this canal was completed.

194. **NUT-**

195. NUTBROOK CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for 5 miles in the county of Derby: its object is the export of coals from the mines near the line. Sir Henry Hunloke and Edward Miller Mundy, esq. were authorised to raise 19,500*l.* between themselves, in 100*l.* shares; their profits not to exceed 8 *per cent.*; and proprietors of adjoining lands may make side branches.

196. OAKHAM CANAL. Acts 33 and 40 Geo. III. General direction about S.E., by a crooked course of 15 miles, in the counties of Leicester and Rutland; its objects are the supply of Oakum, and the country through which it passes, with coals, deals, &c., and the export of agricultural products. In November 1800, this canal was opened from Melton-Mowbray to Saxby bridge, and in January 1803, the whole was completed. This company was authorised to raise 86,000*l.* in 100*l.* shares.

197. OUSE RIVER (*Lewes lower Navigation*). Act 31 Geo. III. General direction nearly north, for near 9 miles, in the county of Suffex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

198. OUSE RIVER (*Lewes upper Navigation*). Act 30 Geo. III. General direction nearly north-west, by a bending course of about 22 miles, in the county of Suffex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and carrying chalk and manures to the lands, and the export of their agricultural products. This company were authorised to raise 25,000*l.* in 100*l.* shares, and the works were not to commence until 10,000*l.* of this was subscribed, and 10 *per cent.* thereon actually paid: it is to that public spirited and worthy nobleman lord Sheffield that the country are in a principal degree indebted for bringing about this useful measure. In 1801, it was proposed to make an extension of the Surry iron rail-way to join this navigation at Linfield. In 1802, the navigation was not completed up to Hammer bridge; but, in the following year, it was said that a new act for further powers for that purpose was in contemplation.

199. OUSE (*great*) RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly S.W., by a crooked course of about 84 miles in the counties of Norfolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, and Bedford, and skirting Suffolk for a short distance: this course through the fens being from the tide-way in Lynn-deeps, (2 miles below that town), past Lynn, Telney, Salter's-Load, Denver-fluice, Rebeck, Little-port-chair, Ely, Harrimere, Hermitage-fluice, Erith, and thence by the regular channel of this river to Bedford. About the year 1780, a cut, of about 1½ mile in length, was made from this river, in Willington, to

the turnpike road in Cople, where a house and conveniences for a wharf were built at a great expense ; but the consent of the proprietor of the Ouse navigation, who holds it under a particular grant from the crown, could not afterwards be obtained for this cut being used as a navigation. In 1785, and again in 1802, the London, Lynn, and Norwich canal was proposed to join this river at Lynn. And in 1792, the Leicester and London was proposed to join and cross it at Bedford.

200. OUSE (*little*) RIVER. This river (often called the Brandon) has its course nearly east, for about 20 miles, between the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk ; its objects are the import of coals, deals, and the export of agricultural products.

201. OUSE RIVER (*York*). Act 23 Henry VIII. General direction nearly north-west for about 48 miles, between the East, West, and North Ridings and Ainsty Liberty in Yorkshire ; its objects are the trade and supply of the city of York, and of the immensely populous and trading districts in the West Riding. At Goole Bridge it is joined by the Don river ; at Armyn, by the Ayre and Calder navigation ; at Barnby, by the Derwent river ; at Selby, by a cut of the Ayre and Calder navigation ; near Cawood, by the Wharfe river ; and at York, by the Foss river.

202. OXFORD CANAL. Acts 9, 15, 26, 34, and 39, Geo. III. General direction nearly north, by a very crooked course in its northern half, of 91 miles, in the counties of Oxford, Warwick, and Northampton ; it crosses the grand ridge by a tunnel, and its northern part skirts along near to it on the western side for many miles ; its objects were a communication between the midland canals and the metropolis, (but a much nearer route is now opened by the Grand-Junction canal,) the supply of the northern parts of Oxfordshire with coals, the export of farming products, &c. At Woolvercot is a cut of about $\frac{1}{4}$ mile (belonging to the duke of Marlborough), by which a communication with the Thames and Isis navigation at Godstow is effected. At Napton the Warwick and Napton canal joins this ; and at Braunston the Grand-Junction canal joins. This canal is 28 feet wide at top, 16 feet at bottom, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep. The number of stone and brick bridges on this line is 188, and of wooden, swing, draw, and foot bridges 66. The Fenny-Compton tunnel is 1188 yards long, $9\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and $15\frac{1}{2}$ feet high. At Newbold is a tunnel 125 yards long, made under the church-yard and street, 16 feet high, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, with a towing-path through it. At Wolfhamcote, also, there is a short tunnel. At Pedlars bridge near Brinklow

is an aqueduct bridge of 12 arches, of 22 feet span each. At Cosford on the Swift river, and at Clifton on the Avon, are others of two arches each; at Wolfhamcote, Adderbury, and Hampton-Gay, are other smaller aqueducts. This company have been authorised to raise, by their different acts, 330,000 *l.*; the amount of their shares is 100 *l.* each. In January 1800 these are said to have sold for 194 *l.*, and in 1802 for 275 *l.* each; the Grand Junction company being bound to make up the tolls hereon, to 10,000 *l.* annually, (if the works are kept in order) on condition of this company taking only certain tolls on goods passing to or from that canal, and agreeing to widen about 35 miles of their canal and locks, that large boats may pass north of Braunston, whenever the Grand Junction company shall require the same of this and the Coventry company. About the year 1792 the Stratford and Croperdy canal was proposed to join this at Croperdy; and, at the same time, a canal from Hampton-Gay to Isleworth was intended to join this at Hampton-Gay.

203. PARNELL'S CANAL. This short canal, or rather water-level, has nearly a north direction for about $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile in the valley north of St. Austle, (near the south coast of Cornwall) one mile above that town; it commences within an immense excavation of great depth, and open to day, which has, by the work of ages, been made in a rocky hill abounding with tin ore. It is tunnelled through the solid rock for 200 yards or more, on a level to the surface of the hill, and proceeds forwards thereon to the top of an inclined plane, of about 50 feet fall, where the boats are raised up an end by a windlass to shoot out the ore. At the bottom of the plane the ore is loaded into carts, to be carted to the stamping-mills. Small square-headed boats are used, and four or five of them are linked together to be shoved through the tunnel, by means of chains, which are fixed along its sides for that purpose, and they are afterwards towed along the canal to the head of the plane. This canal, tunnel, and plane, were made at the expense of Mr. Parnell, who owns the mine, about the year 1770, before which the ore was drawn up to the top edge of the pit or mine, and carted from thence.

204. PARRET RIVER. The course of this river is nearly south-east for about 5 miles in the county of Somerset; its objects are the import of coals, and the export of agricultural products.

205. PEAK-Forest CANAL. Acts 34, 40, and 45 of Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal and rail-way is nearly south-east for 21 miles in the counties of Chester and Derby; its principal object is the export of the Peak-Forest lime, and of coals from the neighbourhood of this canal. The line of

the canal is 15 miles in length, and of the rail-way 6 miles; there is a cut of $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile to Whaely bridge, and a rail-way branch of $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile to Marple. Over the Mersey river, near Marple, is a grand aqueduct bridge of 3 arches, each 60 feet span and 78 feet high, the whole height of the structure being near 100 feet, which was built in the year 1799. The works were completed on the 1st of May 1800. The company were authorised to raise, by the first act, 150,000 *l.*, each share being 100 *l.*, which in 1802 bore a premium of 10 *per cent.*

206. PENTLAND FIRTH. This freight has nearly a west direction between Caithness county, at the north-eastern extremity of Scotland, and the Orkney islands. The Inverness and Fort-William canal, now cutting a great way south of this for the use of ships, is expected much to lessen the use of this firth.

207. POLBROOK CANAL. Act 37 Geo. III. General direction nearly south east for about 5 miles in Cornwall; its objects are the import of coals, and the export of stone and agricultural products. This company may raise 18,000 *l.* in 50 *l.* shares.

208. POOLE HARBOUR. This spacious inlet or harbour has nearly a west course for about 9 miles in the county of Dorset; its object, besides the general trade and supply of the neighbourhood, is the export of a fine potter's clay found near to Corfe Castle, in the isle of Purbeck, and paving-stones and free-stone from thence.

209. PORTSMOUTH HARBOUR. This inlet or harbour has nearly a north course for about $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles in Hampshire.

210. *Portsmouth and Croyden Canal.* In 1802 and 1803, a canal was in contemplation from Portsmouth Harbour to the Croydon Canal, passing Havant, Chichester, Arundel, Horsham, Ryegate, and Merstham; but the opposition of the land-owners and favourers of a rail-way scheme from Portsmouth to London procured its rejection in parliament. The estimated expense was 721,000 *l.*, and 800,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* shares was proposed to be raised; the expected revenue was estimated at 100,000 *l.* *per annum.* While this line was in contemplation, an attempt was made to draw the public attention to a different line of canal from Portsmouth Harbour, through Southampton Water and the Itchen River, to Winchester; thence to Alresford, near to Alton and Farnham, and to the Wey river at Godalming: from near Westley on that river, the proposed line of the Grand Surry canal was to be followed to Deptford and the Thames river. The estimate mentioned on this occasion was 348,735 *l.*

211. *Portsmouth and London Rail-way.* In 1803, an engineer was employed to survey the line of a rail-way from Portsmouth

mouth town to the west end of Stamford-Street, near Blackfriars-Bridge, London. The estimated expense of this work was 400,000*l*.

212. RAMSDEN'S CANAL. Act 14 Geo. III. General direction nearly south-west for about 8 miles in the West Riding of Yorkshire; its objects at first were the supply and trade of Huddersfield town, but it will shortly have considerable importance as part of the shortest line of navigation between Hull and Manchester and Liverpool. Sir John Ramsden, who is the sole proprietor of this canal and of Huddersfield town, in 1766 employed Mr James Brindley to plan this canal; and, after his death, it was begun and quickly completed by Mr. Luke Holt. The proprietors' profits are never to exceed 6 *per cent.* upon the monies laid out.

213. *Reading and Maidenhead.* In 1770, a canal was proposed from the Thames river, at Bolter's Lock near Taplow-Hill, to the Thames again, at Sunning near Reading and to the Kennet river, the distance being near 15 miles by the canal, and by the river above 30 miles; a barge of 120 tons being 3 days (and often in dry times as many weeks) in performing the voyage, at an expense equal to 50*l*.; while, by this canal, it was calculated that a barge might at all times, except frost, perform it in 6 hours, at 4*l*. 7*s*. expense, including $\frac{1}{2}$ *d*. per ton to the trustees as a toll. No private property was to be allowed in this canal, but the money was proposed to be raised by life annuities, out of which, and the tolls, the river navigation was to be improved between Bolter's Lock and Sunning, without any new tolls being charged thereon; and when a sufficient fund was accumulated for repairs and management, the tolls were to cease, and the canal be entirely free.

214. RIBBLE RIVER. The direction of this river is nearly east for about 12 miles in the county of Lancaster; its objects are the supply and trade of Preston town, and the export of coals brought down by the Douglas river, which joins it near Hasketh.

215. RIPON CANAL. Act 7 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. by a bending course of about 7 miles in the West, and skirting the North Riding of Yorkshire: its objects are the supply of Ripon, and the export of agricultural products, stone, &c.

216. ROCHDALE CANAL. Acts 34, 40, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. by a bending course of 31 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Lancaster and York; it crosses the grand ridge by a deep-cutting: its general objects are the communication between Liverpool and Manchester, with Hallifax, Wakefield, Hull, &c. the export of coals, paving-stones, &c. At Piccadilly street in

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Manchester it is joined by the Manchester Ashton and Oldham canal. On the 28th of December 1798, the east end of the line from Sowerby bridge to Rochdale was completed; on 18th September 1802 it was continued to Lameside Wharf; and on 21st December 1804, the whole line was completed and opened to Manchester. This company were authorised by their first act to raise 391,000*l.* (the amount of shares 100*l.* each), and by the last act they were authorised to raise a large sum in addition. Cuts or rails-ways may be made to any present or future coal-mines near the line. In 1791 a branch from this canal was proposed from near Todmarden (104 feet below the summit-level) to 2 miles beyond Colne, having a tunnel of $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in length, about 3 miles N.E. of Todmarden.

217. *ROTHER RIVER.* The general direction of this river is nearly N.W. by a crooked course of about 19 miles in the counties of Sussex and Kent; its objects are the import of coals, &c. and the export of oak-timber and agricultural products; near Rye harbour, opposite to Pleydon-heights, it is joined by the Shorncliff and Rye canal. In December, 1799, it was proposed to improve the navigation of this river between Rye and Robertsbridge, to extend the navigation of the Winchelsea branch to Siddlecomb, and to make a new navigable branch from Blackwall to Smallhithe near Tenterden. In April 1802, this last branch was proposed to be joined by the intended Medway and Rother canal.

218. *Sandbach Canal.* In the year 1793, a canal was proposed to be made from the Severn river below Shrewsbury to the Trent and Mersey canal at Sandbach, with a cut to Betley, and another to join the Chester canal near Nantwich. The Ternbridge and Winsford, and the Newport and Stone canals, have at different times been proposed through parts of the same tract of country.

219. *SANKEY CANAL.* Act 28 Geo. II. and 1 Geo. III. General direction nearly N. W. by so very bending a course, that it exceeds a semicircle; its length is $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Lancaster; its objects are the export of coals and flates, and the supply and trade of St. Hellens and Newton, and the copper, glass, and other works near them; near Sankey bridge it connects with, and is crossed by, the side-cut made in 1804 for avoiding the shallows in the Mersey, between Warrington and Runcorn. This canal is 48 feet wide and $5\frac{7}{8}$ feet deep in water; it has 18 wooden swing-bridges. The sum of money to be raised for the purposes of this canal is not limited as is done in all modern canal acts. In June 1797, a loaded barge was rowed 20 miles on this canal by a machine worked by a steam-engine on board the barge.

220. *SEVERN*

220. SEVERN RIVER. Acts 19 Hen. VII. 23 Hen. VIII. and 12 and 43 Geo. III.—The general direction of this noble river is nearly north, by a crooked and bending course of about 174 miles, skirting the counties of Somerset, Gloucester, Glamorgan, Monmouth, and Hereford, and through the counties of Worcester, Salop, and Montgomery; commencing in the tide-way in the Bristol Channel, at Flat-Holm light-house, and terminating in the Montgomery canal at Welshpool. The trade of various kinds is very great on this important river, and the many navigations which connect with it. At the lower layer it is joined by the Glamorganshire canal and Cardiff and Merthyr-Tydvill rail-way; at New Amsterdam by the Sirhowy rail-way; at Nash by the Uske river; (not far from its junction with Monmouthshire canal, and a branch of Sirhowy rail-way); at King's Road by the Bath Avon river: at Beachley by the Wye river; at Berkley-Pill, Hotch-Crib, and at Gloucester by the Gloucester and Berkley canal; at Framiload by the Stroud-water river and canal; at Gloucester, on each side of Alney Isle, and at Lassington by the Hereford and Gloucester; at Fletcher's leap with Come-hill canal; at Tewksbury by the Stratford Avon; at Diglas by the Worcester and Birmingham; at Hawford by the Droitwich canal; at Stourport by the Stour river and Staffordshire and Worcestershire, and the Leominster canals; at Coal-port and at Loads-croft near Coalbrooke dale, by the Shropshire canal; and at Shrewsbury by the Shrewsbury and Ellesmere canals. Some years ago, Mr. John Wilkinson introduced some barges made of cast iron plates for navigating this river. In the 16 Geo. III. an act was obtained for erecting a cast-iron bridge of one arch (the first ever erected) over this river at Brosely or Madeley-wood near Coalbrook dale. At Shrewsbury the very long and curving loop of the river is tunnelled through by a small arch for conveying water to several mills at its junction again with the river. In the year 1765, the Ternbridge and Windsford canal was proposed to join this river at Ternbridge; in 1786 the Stourbridge and Worcester was proposed to join at Diglis; in 1793, the Sandbach, and another canal in opposition to the Ellesmere (called, in some maps, the Eastern Grand Trunk,) were proposed to join this river below Shrewsbury. In 1795, the Welshpool and Leominster was intended to join at Welshpool; in 1797, the Bristol and Gloucester was proposed to join, both at Gloucester and at Worcester, to this river; and, in 1801, the Severn and Wye rail-way was proposed to join this river at Lidney.

Severn and Wye Rail-way. See Dean-Forest rail-way.

221. SHANNON RIVER, (*Ireland.*) The general direction of this famous river is nearly N.E. by a crooked course of more than

than 100 miles, between the counties of Kerry, Limerick, Clare, Tipperary, Galway, King's county, Meath, Longford, Elphin, and Leitrim in Ireland. It commences in the Atlantic Ocean at Loop-head, and terminates at Carrick on the Shannon, which is 65 miles above Banagher. It is joined by the Grand Canal at Tormanbury, and it also is joined by the Limerick canal. The Irish parliament, at different periods, between 1753 and 1771, granted 39,160*l.* for the improvement of this navigation; the upper part was not completed till 1804.

222. SHORNCLIFF AND RYE CANAL. Defence act 43 Geo. III.—The general direction of this singular canal is nearly S. W. by a bending course of about 18 miles, through Romney marsh, in the counties of Kent and Suffex. It is so nearly level with the sea as to require no locks but the tide-locks at its extremities. Its objects, besides aiding the defence of this part of our coast, is the import of coals and sea-beach for road-making; the export of farming products, and improving the drainage of the marsh. This canal is of width and depth sufficient for vessels of 200 tons to navigate; it has a military road by its side, and is flanked throughout with batteries of great strength. This canal was projected by the royal military engineers, in the autumn of 1804; and in June last 1805, 3000 men were said to be employed on it.

223. SHREWSBURY CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. General direction nearly E. by a crooked course of $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length in the county of Salop; its objects are the export of coals from its eastern end for the supply of Shrewsbury, and supplying the same with farming products, and the country with lime and manures; at Wombridge it is joined by the Ketley canal. Near Atcham is a tunnel of 970 yards in length, and 10 feet wide, which has a towing-path 3 feet wide through it, constructed of wood, and supported on bearers from the wall, so as not to diminish the water-way. At Long is a long embankment and an aqueduct bridge, or rather trough of cast iron, over the Tern river, 62 yards long, and 16 feet above the level meadows, of which we have already given a description in this article; at Roddington are another embankment and a common aqueduct bridge, 21 feet above the surface of the Roden river, over which the canal passes, and at Pimley there are another embankment and aqueduct of less height and width than the former ones. In March 1796, the Long aqueduct was finished; and in February 1797, the whole line was completed and opened. This company was authorised to raise 70,000*l.* the amount of each share being 100*l.*

224. SHROPSHIRE CANAL. Act 28 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal, or rather system of water-levels and inclined

inclined-planes, is nearly north, about $7\frac{1}{4}$ miles in the county of Salop; its objects are the export of coals and iron, and the carrying up of lime-stone. It communicates near Oaken-Gates with the Shrewsbury canal. The works were completed, and the canal opened in 1792; it is said to have cost only 47,500 *l.* In 1797, the tolls produced a net profit of 6 per cent.

225. SIRHOWY RAIL-WAY. Act 42 Geo. III. (for Monmouthshire canal.)—The general direction of this rail-way or tram-road, is nearly N.W. for about 28 miles in the counties of Monmouth, and of Brecknock in South Wales: its object is the export of coals and iron from the rich mineral country through which it passes: at Court-y-billa farm, and at Risca, it is joined by rail-way branches of the Monmouthshire canal. This company were authorised to raise 45,000 *l.* the amount of their shares being 100 *l.* and they have engaged to pay 110 *l.* annually to the Monmouthshire canal company.

226. SLEAFORD NAVIGATION. Act 32 Geo. III. General direction nearly west for about 12 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the supply of Sleaford and the surrounding country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce. This company was authorised to raise 23,000 *l.* the amount of shares 100 *l.* each.

227. SOHAM LODGE. The direction of this navigable cut or lode is nearly S.E. for about 4 miles, and is embanked through the level fens in Cambridgeshire: its objects are the supply of coals, &c. to Soham, and the export of farming products.

228. SOMERSETSHIRE COAL CANAL. Acts 34, 36, and 42 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 10 miles, besides a principal branch of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles nearly parallel thereto, in the county of Somerset: its object is the export of coals from the mines north of Mendip hills. This company was authorised to raise 185,000 *l.* the amount of shares 100 *l.* each. The profits are not to exceed 10 *per cent*, but after 1000 *l.* are accumulated and placed in government securities, as a fund for contingencies, the tolls on coals are to be lowered.

229. SOUTHAMPTON AND SALISBURY CANAL. Acts 35 and 40 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for about 17 miles, in two detached lengths, in the counties of Hants and Wilts; its objects are the trade between Southampton and Salisbury, the supply of these towns, and the export of the surplus farming products of the intermediate country. Upon part of the canal there is a tunnel of considerable length close to, and indeed under part of the north end of Salisbury town: considerable difficulties seem to have attended the making of this tunnel, owing to the looseness of the soil; and the quick-sands at the foot of the cliff, by the side of Southampton Water, have
also

also proved a very serious obstacle. An aqueduct is built over Shirley Brook. This company have been authorised to raise 96,000 *l.* the amount of each share being 100 *l.*

230. SOUTHAMPTON WATER. Acts 11 Henry VII. and 18 Henry VIII.—This noble estuary of the Anton and other rivers has a N. W. direction for about 10 miles in Hampshire. Southampton water is navigable for large ships; it commences in the channel between Hampshire and the Isle of Wight at Calshot Castle, and terminates near Red bridge, where it is joined by the Anton river (formerly navigable near 6 miles to Romsey), and the Andover canal near one of the terminations of the Southampton and Salisbury canal; near Salisbury it is joined by the Itchin river, (about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile from the commencement of the Southampton and Salisbury canal.)

231. STAFFORDSHIRE AND WORCESTERSHIRE CANAL. Acts 6, 10, and 30, of Geo. III. General direction nearly north for $46\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Worcester and Stafford; its middle part is very considerably elevated, and it crosses the grand ridge without a tunnel; its trade in the export of coals, pottery-ware, hard wares, &c. is immense, besides the general trade between the Severn, the Mersey, and Trent, which for a long time passed exclusively through it. Near to Stourton, and to Stewponey, it is joined by the Stourbridge canal, and at Aldersley or Autherley by the Old Birmingham canal. On this canal are three short tunnels; one is near Stewponey, the other at Whitlington, and the other is an arched-way under part of the town of Kidderminster; at which place there is an aqueduct-bridge over the Stour river, another at Prestwood on Wordley brook, another near Milford on the Sow river, and another at Haywood mill over the Trent river. This company were authorised to raise 100,000 *l.* the amount of each share being 100 *l.* In September 1805, the yearly dividend on these was stated to be 24 *l.*

232. STAINFORTH AND KEADBY CANAL. Acts 33 and 38 of Geo. III. General direction nearly W. for 15 miles in the counties of Lincoln and York; its objects are the import of coals and export of agricultural produce, with a better drainage of the country through which it passes. This company were authorised to raise 54,200 *l.* the amount of shares being 100 *l.* each.

233. STOKE RIVER. The direction of this river (sometimes called the Winsen) is W. for about $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Norfolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural products.

234. STORT RIVER. The general direction of this river is almost N.E. by a bending course of about 13 miles between the

the counties of Essex and Hertford; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

235. STOUR RIVER (*Christchurch*.) The direction of this river is nearly N.W. for about 35 miles in the counties of Hants and Dorset; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

236. STOUR RIVER (*Harwich*.) The general direction of this river is nearly W. by a bending course for about 29 miles between the counties of Essex and Suffex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

237. STOUR RIVER (*Sandwich*.) Act 7 Henry VII. General direction nearly W. by a crooked course of about 18 miles in the county of Kent; its objects are the supply and trade of Canterbury, and the export of farming products.

238. *Stour River (Stourbridge)* Many years ago the Stour river from the Severn at Stour-port to the town of Stourbridge, (passing the town of Kidderminster,) about 14 miles, was made navigable by means of sluices, weirs, and other works; but soon after there happened so sudden and violent a flood as to destroy all these works. The Stafford and Worcester, and the Stourbrige canals, have since supplied more effectually the place of this river navigation.

239. STOURBRIDGE CANAL. Acts 16 and 22 of Geo. III. General direction nearly E. by a crooked course of about 5 miles in the county of Stafford; its objects are the export of coals, iron-stone, &c. and forming part of the communication between the Old Birmingham and the Severn, &c. This company were at first authorised to raise 30,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* shares; the last act authorised calling upon the subscribers for 7,500 *l.* more, by which their shares are now increased to 125 *l.* each.

240. *Stourbridge and Worcester*. In 1786, a canal was proposed, and supported by the late lord Dudley and Ward, from the Severn river at Diglis below Worcester city to the Stourbridge canal at that place, passing Bromsgrove; its proposed length was 26 miles. The bill passed the commons but was rejected by the lords.

241. STOVER CANAL. Act 32 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the country of Devon; its objects are the import of coals, shelly sea-sand, and lime, as manures, and the export of potters' clay (used in Staffordshire, Lancashire, &c.) and a peculiar kind of imperfect coal found in small quantities at Bovey-Tracey. James Templar, Esq. is sole proprietor of this canal.

242. *Stowmarket and Bury Rail-way*. In December, 1802, it was in contemplation to make a rail-way from the Stowmarket and Ipswich navigation at Stowmarket, to the Lark river
at

at Bury St. Edmund's; for the purpose of supplying the latter place, and the intermediate country with coals, and for the readier export of farming products.

243. STOWMARKET AND IPSWICH NAVIGATION. Act 33 and 45 Geo. III.—The general direction of this navigation (which follows the course of the Orwell river) is nearly N.W. for about 26 miles in the county of Suffolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products; it is joined by the Stour river near Harwich. This company were, by an act prior to the above, authorised to raise 14,300*l.* by the first act above 15,000*l.* more might be raised; the last act was for improving the port of Ipswich by deepening the same, so that ships might unload at the wharfs, &c. In December, 1802, it was proposed that the Stowmarket and Bury rail-way should join this navigation at Stowmarket.

244. STRATFORD CANAL. Acts 33, 35, and 39 Geo. III.—General direction nearly N. for 23½ miles in the counties of Warwick and Worcester; its objects are the export of coals, lime, and paving-stones, and as a link in the great chain of canal communication; at Kingswood in Rowington a branch of this canal connects with the Warwick and Birmingham. This company was authorised to raise 225,000*l.* the amount of shares 100*l.*

245. STROUDWATER CANAL. Acts 34 Geo. II. 15 Geo. III. 23 (for Thames and Severn,) and 33 and 37 Geo. III. (for Gloucester and Berkley).—The general direction of this canal is about E. for 8 miles (following nearly the course of Stroudwater river) in the county of Gloucester; its objects are the import of coals, and forming part of the first direct communication between the Severn and Thames and Isis rivers; at Wheatenhurst the Gloucester and Berkley canal crosses and connects herewith. The first of the above acts gave powers to raise 20,000*l.* in 200*l.* shares, intending to execute the works under the powers of an act of 2 Geo. II. for improving the Stroudwater river, but several expensive law-suits put a stop to the works, until the second act was obtained. In 1802 the dividends on shares in this concern were 6*l.* each, and their price was about 225*l.*

246. *Stroudwater River.* The act of 2 Geo. II. passed for making this river navigable between the Severn and the town of Stroud, a distance of about 8 miles; but the opposition of the millers and others prevented its being accomplished, until 34 Geo. II. when Mr. Bridge undertook to construct the navigation, without waste of water or prejudice to the mills, by means of cranes to hoist the goods in boxes out of the boats in one pound, and place them in others in the adjoining pounds, but this scheme miscarried, and the projectors were nearly

ruined: at length the Stroudwater canal was constructed by the side of this river.

247. SURREY IRON RAIL-WAY, (*Northern part*). Acts 41 and 45 Geo. III.—This, the first public rail-way constructed near the metropolis, has about a S.E. direction, for 10 miles, in the county of Surrey: its objects are the import of coals and manures, and the export of chalk, flint, fire-stone, fullers'-earth, and agricultural products. The width of each track is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet, the waggons carry about $3\frac{1}{4}$ tons each, and several of them are often linked together to be drawn by one horse. This rail-way crosses the Wandle river twice on wooden bridges. On the 9th of January, 1802, the entrance basin at Wandsworth was completed and opened; in October of the same year, the rail-way from the side thereof crossing the turnpike road, and extending to Garrat was completed, and in 1805, it was opened to Croydon. The company were, by the first act, authorised to raise 50,000 *l.* and a further sum, by the act of the late sessions, the amount of shares 100 *l.* Few subjects have been more variably stated than the cost per mile of this rail-way. Mr. John Philips, after noticing in his History the commencement of this work, adds, that iron rail-ways are made at an expense of about 300 *l.* per mile. The original estimate was, we believe, 2,000 *l.* per mile; at a public meeting at Gosport, in September 1803, it was stated by some favourers of the extension of a canal from Croydon to Portsmouth, that the expenditure on this rail-way had amounted to 6,400 *l.* per mile; but the advocates for extending this rail-way to Portsmouth instead of a canal, then contended that the expense did not exceed 4,500 *l.* per mile: while Mr. James Malcolm, in his Agricultural Report on Surrey, after stating the great pains he had been at to come at the facts, says, "instead, therefore of the expense being 2000 *l.* per mile, it appears if it would be 7000 *l.*!" (this includes all the expenditure of the company). The rates of tonnage are from 2 *d.* to 6 *d.* per ton, per mile, for different goods; and owners of adjoining lands may use the rail-way as a drift road. Ten pounds annually are to be paid to the city of London by this company, for connecting with the river Thames.

248. SURREY IRON RAIL-WAY (*Southern part*). Act 43 Geo. III.—The general direction of this line of rail-way is nearly S. by a bending course of about 16 miles in the county of Surrey; upon the chalk-hills or North Downs, it is greatly elevated; its objects are the import of coals and manures, and the export of chalk, lime, fire-stone, free-stone, flints, fullers'-earth, and agricultural products. The width of this double rail-way, including a path on each side for the carriage drivers is 24 feet. Some of the waggons hereon have their fore-wheels placed

placed quite forward, and the hind-wheels nearly under the middle of the waggon, by which means stones, &c. can be shot out of them when required. The shares in this concern are 100 *l.* each. About June, 1805, this rail-way between Croydon and Merstham was opened, and 12 waggons loaded with stone weighing $38\frac{1}{2}$ tons, were drawn with ease by one horse for 6 miles down the descent to Croydon-turnpike, in 1 hour and 41 minutes; from which place the same horse set off again with 4 other loaded waggons attached, and persons riding on them, making in the whole more than 55 tons, which it was said he drew with apparent ease.

249. SWALE RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly N.W. for about 35 miles by a crooked course in the North Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the carriage of coals, and the export of farming products.

250. SWANSEA CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III. Direction about N.N.E. for $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Glamorgan and Brecknock, in South Wales; its objects are the export of coals, and iron-stone, iron, &c. the carriage of lime to the intermediate works and country; and copper-ore, to the works, &c. From near Swansea to Llanfamlet is a branch of 3 miles in length; and a rail-way branch of about 2 miles to a large coal mine, where an audit or tunnel of 3 miles in length has been made under ground, and out of which 200 tons of coals are daily brought. This canal company was authorised to raise 90,000 *l.*, the amount of shares 100 *l.* each; and it was provided in the act, that this canal should be completed in 4 years; several rail-way branches may be made.

251. SWANSEA AND OYSTERMOUTH RAIL-WAY. Act 44 Geo. III.—General direction nearly S.W. by a bending course, following closely the sea shore for about $7\frac{1}{2}$ in length in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales; its object is the carrying of lime-stone, lime, and coals. This rail-way connects with the Swansea canal in Swansea harbour, and proceeds thence to the Mumbles lime-stone quarries near Oystermouth.

252. TAMAR MANURE NAVIGATION. Act 36 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for about 22 miles, following the course of the Tamar river, on the southern coast of the counties of Devon and Cornwall; its objects are the import of coals, and sea-sand and lime as manures; and the export of agricultural products. This company is authorised to raise 121,000 *l.*, the amount of each share 50 *l.*

253. TAMAR RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly north by a crooked course of about 6 miles, between the counties of Devon and Cornwall; it is used for the import of coals, sea-sand, lime, &c. and the export of slate and agricultural

tural products. In 1774, an act passed for the Bude and Launceston canal intended to connect with this at Calstock, but it was never carried into execution.

254. *Tarbeth Canal.* In 1773, Mr. Watt surveyed the isthmus between East and West Tarbeth lochs, on the west coast of Scotland, for a canal to communicate between Loch Fine and the sound of Jura; the estimates were, for a canal with locks 7 feet deep, 17,988*l.*; and for one 10 feet deep and a proportional width, 23,884*l.* The expenses of a thorough cut without locks, of 12 feet deep at high-water, 73,849*l.*; and for one of 15 feet deep, 120,789*l.* The Crinan canal, since constructed more effectually answers the purpose.

255. TAVISTOCK CANAL. Act 43 Geo. III. General direction N.E. for about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Devon: its objects are the export of slate, copper-ore, and other minerals, and of agricultural products; the import of coals, lime, and other articles for the supply of Tavistock town and the surrounding country; and to facilitate the working of the mines in Morwellham down. This company is authorised to raise 50,000*l.*, and the amount of each share is 50*l.* The duke of Bedford may make collateral branches or rail-ways to this canal in any part.

256. TAVY RIVER. The general direction of this river is N.E. for about $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the county of Devon; its objects are the import of coals, sea-sand, &c. and the export of slate, copper-ore, &c.

257. TAW RIVER. The direction of this river, or estuary, is nearly east for about 8 miles on the north-west coast of Devonshire: its objects are the supply of Barnstaple and the adjacent country with coals and other articles, and the export of farming products.

258. TAY RIVER. The general direction of this river, firth, or estuary, is nearly west for about 26 miles between Angus and Fife, and in the county of Perth in Scotland; its objects are the supply and trade of Dundee and Perth, and the adjacent country. At Stanley, three foughs or tunnels of considerable length (one of them from 12 to 9 feet wide arched with stone) are driven through the hill, which occasions a great loop in the river, by which 24 to 20 feet fall is gained, for a large portion of the stream, to work cotton-mills and other machinery; and running in this subterraneous channel it never freezes.

259. TEES RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly S.E. by a crooked course of about 12 miles between the counties of York and Durham; its objects are the trade of Stockton, and the export of agricultural products. In 1768,

the Winston and Stockton canal was proposed for extending this navigation westward to the canal district at Winston.

260. TEIGN RIVER. The direction of this river, or estuary, is west for about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the south-eastern coast of Devonshire; its objects are the import of Newcastle or Welsh coals, and the export of potters' clay, bovey coal, and agricultural products.

261. *Ternbridge and Winsford.* In 1765, Mr. Whitworth proposed a canal from the Severn river at Ternbridge below Shrewsbury, to the Weaver navigation at Winsford, $63\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Salop, Stafford, and Chester, with a branch therefrom, near Bridgeford; 43 miles to the Trent river at Wilden-Ferrey. It was proposed to be 27 feet wide at top, 18 at bottom, and 5 feet deep, with a towing path on both sides; the locks 60 feet long and 13 wide, and about 10 feet rise each: the boats of 50 tons burthen: 78 road-bridges, and 25 accommodation bridges were thought necessary, and 162 aqueducts and culverts: the estimated expense was 99,800*l.* The Staffordshire and Worcestershire, and the Trent and Mersey canals, which were adopted in the following year, embrace all the general objects of this canal. The Sandbach, and the Newport and Stone, have since been proposed to occupy parts of the south-western end of this line, but, like this, were overruled.

262. THAMES. An account of this river will be given in treating of the metropolis.

263. THAMES AND ISIS NAVIGATION. Act 11, 15, 28, and 35 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N. W. by a very serpentine and crooked course of about 110 miles between the counties of Surrey and Berks, and of Bucks, Oxford, and Gloucester; its objects are the supply of London and the carriage of coals, and a variety of other articles: near Reading it connects with the Kennet river; at Abingdon, the Wilts and Berks canal joins this navigation: at Badcock's garden in Oxford, this navigation is joined by the Oxford canal, and at Godstow, by the duke of Marlborough's cut from the same canal. The gentlemen of the counties adjoining this navigation are commissioners for executing, in different districts, the above acts; they have borrowed 60,800*l.* which they have expended, over and above the surplus of the tolls, in making 24 side-cuts with opening weirs and pound-locks, with a horse towing-path, and other works for improving this navigation, which is now accomplished, so that very long and wide barges, drawing 3 feet 10 inches, can in general pass. In 1800, Mr. Wilson prepared a design and model for his Majesty, of a cast-iron bridge of one arch, proposed to be erected over the Thames at Datchet.

In

In 1770, the Reading and Maidenhead canal was proposed to join this navigation at Sunning, and at Bolter's-lock; in 1802, a western branch of the Grand Junction canal was proposed to join this navigation at Harleyford near Great Marlow, and crossing the same at that place, it was to proceed to join it again near Reading; and in the same year another branch, from the Grand Junction, through Aylesbury, was proposed to join this navigation near to Abingdon, and to the Wilts and Berks canal.

264. *Thames and Avon Canal.* In the reign of Charles II., Mr. Joseph Moxon was employed to survey the line for a canal, and a bill was prepared and brought into parliament for the Thames and Isis navigation at Lechlade, by Cricklade, Malmesbury, Chippenham, and thence by the course of the Avon river to Bath, 40 miles in length: in 1754, this design was again revived, with the idea of employing the soldiers upon it; and it was stated that a canal 50 feet wide at top, 30 at bottom, and 4 feet deep, might thus be completed for 1000*l.* per mile.

265. THAMES AND MEDWAY CANAL. Act 40 and 44 of Geo. III. General direction S.E. for $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Kent; its object is for shortening the voyage of barges from Gravesend to Chatham round by the Nore. In December 1801 this canal was completed from Gravesend to Denton. The company were authorised to raise by the first act 60,000*l.* in 100*l.* shares, and a further sum by the last act, and they are to pay 1*s.* annually to the city of London as conservators of the Thames river, for the liberty of connecting therewith, and 1*s.* to the corporation of Rochester, as conservators of the Medway for the same privilege.

266. THAMES AND SEVERN CANAL. Act 23, 31, and 36 of Geo. III. General direction East for $30\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the counties of Gloucester and Wilts: it crosses the grand ridge by a tunnel; its objects are a communication between the Severn and Thames rivers, the supply of the country through which it passes with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products. The famous tunnel on this canal at Sapperton, is 4300 yards long, the arch being 15 feet wide in the clear, and 250 feet beneath the highest point of the hill, which proved to be hard rock, much of which required blasting, and some of it was so solid as to need no arch of masonry to support it; the other parts are arched above, and have inverted arches in the bottom; the cost of excavating this tunnel, in 1788, amounted to 8 guineas per cubic yard. This company were authorised to raise 255,000*l.*, the shares being 100*l.* each; there was a provision that 3 per cent. interest should be paid

(out of the principal) to the subscribers on their shares, until the canal was completed and opened. No stamps were necessary to the proceedings of this company. In September 1800, it was intended to make from near Ingletham a forked branch passing Faringdon and Highworth, to connect with the Wilts and Berks canal in two places.

267. **THANET'S CANAL.** Act 13 Geo. III. Direction nearly N.E. for about $\frac{1}{3}$ of a mile in length in the West Riding of Yorkshire; it was cut at the private expense of the earl of Thanet, through whose estate alone it passes, except one close: its object is to convey coals to the lime-kilns, and to export lime as a manure and for building.

268. **THYRN AND BURE NAVIGATION.** The general direction of these rivers is about N.W. for nearly 30 miles in the county of Norfolk; the objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

269. **TIEV RIVER.** This river, (sometimes called the Tivey or Teifi river,) has nearly an east course for about 39 miles between the counties of Cardigan and Pembroke, and Caermarthen in South Wales; its objects are the supply of Llanbedr and Cardigan, and the export of agricultural products.

270. **TONE AND PARRET NAVIGATION.** Acts 10 and 11 William III. 6 Anne, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly south by a bending course of about 27 miles in the county of Somerset: its objects are the import of coals and the export of agricultural products; at Borough chapel it is joined by the Parret river. In 1796, the Bristol and Taunton canal was proposed to connect with this navigation at Bridgewater.

271. *Topcliff and Pierse-Bridge.* In June 1801, it was proposed to form a canal from the Swale river at Topcliff to Pierse bridge on the Tees river: the intention of this canal was for supplying the north riding of Yorkshire with Durham coals.

272. **TORRIDGE RIVER.** The direction of this river is south for 3 miles near the north-west coast of Devonshire; its objects are the supply of Biddeford with coals, &c. and the export of agricultural products.

273. **TOVEY RIVER.** The direction of this river (sometimes called the Towey), is north for about $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles in Caermarthenshire in South Wales: its object is the supply of Caermarthen.

274. **TRENT RIVER, (lower part).** Act 34 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.S.W. by a bending and crooked course of about 116 miles, skirting Yorkshire for a short distance, and through the counties of Lincoln and Nottingham, and

and between those of Leicester and Derby ; its navigation is of vast importance to the country, owing to the many communications which it forms with other rivers or canals ; at Keadby it connects with the Stainsforth and Keadby canal ; at Stockwith, with the Idle river, and near the same place with the Chesterfield canal ; at Torksey, with the Foss-dyke canal ; at Crankleys, in South-Muskham, with the Dean river ; at Trent-bridge, near Holme-pierpoint, with the Grantham canal, and the Nottingham canal ; near Sawley, with the Loughborough navigation, or Soar river, and the Erewash canal. In 1789 and 1790, several acres of land were gained from the wide muddy banks of this river, simply by staking down rows of furzen faggots thereon, to check the current, and encourage the abundant deposit which this river makes, wherever its waters become stationary ; a circumstance which proves of immense advantage in many instances, by the warping of land near this river in floody times, to improve it. The flood which happened in the beginning of 1800, forced a new and much straighter course of this river below Gainsborough, and occasioned the old crooked channel to be deserted. For making a new-side cut, sometimes called the Trent canal, this company were authorised to raise 23,000*l.* in 50*l.* shares. The profits of the Trent canal are not to exceed 7 *per cent.* In 1760, the Wilden and King's-Bromley, and in 1765, the Ternbridge and Winsford canals were proposed to join this river at Wilden-ferry, where the Trent and Mersey canal now joins.

275. TRENT RIVER, (*upper part*). Acts 10 and 11 William III. General direction nearly W.S.W. by a crooked course of about 19 miles in Derbyshire and Staffordshire ; and skirting Leicestershire ; its objects are the carriage of coals, and the export of salt, earthen-ware, ale, and agricultural products : it connects at Swarkstone with the Derby canal, and has the Trent and Mersey canal running the whole length almost by its side, and communicating with it at its two extremities. The earl of Uxbridge is the sole proprietor of this navigation, and all other persons are restricted from erecting or using wharfs or warehouses on its banks without his special consent. The bridge over this river at Burton-upon-Trent is said to be the longest in England, being 1545 feet long, with 34 arches. In 1793, the Bredon rail-way was proposed to join this navigation at Weston Cliff ; in 1796, the commercial canal, and in 1797, an extension of the Ashby-de-la-Zouch canal was proposed to connect herewith at Burton.

276. TRENT AND MERSEY CANAL. Acts 6, 10, 15, 16, 23, 25, two of 37, and 42 Geo. III.—This canal (sometimes called the Grand Trunk, or the Staffordshire canal,) has its

general direction about E.S.E. by a very bending course of 93 miles in the counties of Chester, Stafford, and Derby: it crosses the grand ridge by a tunnel: its objects are the export of coals, salt, pottery-wares, lime, gypsum, Swithland-slates, agricultural products, &c. and forming parts of the grand inland communications between Liverpool and Manchester, with Hull, Bristol, and London; at Quinton's-wood in Stoke, it connects with the Newcastle-under-line canal: at Great Haywood with the Stafford and Worcester canal; at Fradley Heath with the detached part of Coventry canal; and at Swarkstone it crosses and connects with the Derby canal. From Etruria, a principal branch (sometimes called the Caldon canal) proceeds by Froghall to Uttoxeter, by a very bending course of about 28 miles in length; from this, at Froghall in Kinsley, there is a rail-way branch of $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles to Caldon-low lime-works, also from Stanley Moss in Endon there is a canal branch of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the town of Leek, and from Shelton, a short cut to Cobridge: from Stoke-upon-Trent there is a rail-way branch to Lane-end; and from Etruria another to Handley-green; from Longport to Dale-hall there is a canal-branch, and the same is continued forwards by a rail-way to the potteries at Burslem; there is a cut 1 mile in length to the Trent river near Burton. Near Lane-delph, and in Harecastle there are short cuts or tunnels, extending to the pits or seams of coals. From Preston-brook to Middlewich, at the western end, and from Wilden-Ferry to Horninglow near Burton, at the eastern end, the width of the canal at top is 31 feet, at bottom 18, and it is $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep; the locks here are 14 feet wide, adapted to river barges of 40 tons burthen; the middle part of the canal, and its branches, are 29 feet broad at top, 16 feet at bottom, and it is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep, the locks being only 7 feet wide; the boats are 80 feet long, 6 feet wide, and carry 18 to 20 tons of lading. There are 16 public wharfs on this canal with warehouses, cranes, weighing-engines, and other necessary conveniences at each. Over this canal there are 258 road and foot bridges, and under it three large aqueducts, and 124 lesser ones and culverts. Through Harecastle-hill is a tunnel of 2888 yards in length, and upwards of 70 yards below the hill: this tunnel intersects; and has cross branches to, several veins of coals in the hill, and is also famous for being the first public canal-tunnel constructed in England; the height of the arch is 12 feet, and its width 9 feet within-side. At Preston-on-the-hill near Bridgewater's canal is another tunnel of 1241 yards in length; at Barton in Great Budworth is another, 572 yards long; at Saltersford, or Saltersfield, in the same parish, is another of 350 yards long, and there is a fifth tunnel

tunnel at Armitage, or Hermitage, of 130 yards in length; the heights of these last tunnels are $17\frac{1}{2}$ and their width $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet. At Monks-bridge there is an embankment 13 feet high of $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in length, and an aqueduct bridge over the Dove river of 23 arches, from 15 to 12 feet wide each. At Alrewas is an aqueduct over the Trent river, with 6 arches of 21 feet span; and near Middlewich is another aqueduct over the Dane, with 3 arches of 20 feet span. The works of this canal, which were begun in July 1766; in April 1773, the line eastward of Harecastle tunnel was completed, and in May 1777, the whole line was completed and opened: the Leek branch, the extension of the Caldon branch to Uttoxeter, and the Cobridge branch have been undertaken since the year 1797; the Lane-end, Handley-green, and Burslem branches were projected in 1802. This company have been authoris'd at different times to raise 334,250 *l.* the amount of their shares was 200 *l.* each, until 42 Geo. III., when a division of them was made into 100 *l.* shares. In 1760 and 1765, the Wilden and Kings-Bromley, and the Tern-bridge and Winsford canals were proposed through parts of the track now occupied by this canal: in 1793, the Sandbach canal was proposed to join near that place, and the Bredon rail-way was intended to be connected herewith near Weston-cliff: in 1796, the commercial canal was proposed to cross this canal at Horninglow near Burton, and again near Burslem; in 1797, an extension of the Ashby-de-la-Zouch canal, to join this at Horninglow was proposed; the design of the two last proposals was, an extension of the wide canals for 40 ton boats, and with the same view a plan was, in 1797, mentioned of widening this canal and its locks, bridges, &c so that wide boats might pass between Fradley-Heath, and the east end of Hardcastle tunnel.

277. **TWEED RIVER.** This river seems to be navigable but about 1 mile from the sea to Berwick bridge, between Berwick liberty and a detached part of Durham county; it affords a great trade in salmon, which are caught in great quantities, and 40,000 kits have been pickled and sent off from this town in one year; 75 to 80 vessels are employed in the fishery, and trade connected with it.

278. **TYNE RIVER.** Acts 9 and 10 Henry V., 6 and 7 William III., and 41 Geo. III.—The general direction of this river is nearly W.S.W. by a crooked course of about 14 miles between Durham and Northumberland; its great object is the export of coals. A peculiar kind of vessels is in use upon this river for carrying coals from the waggon-roads, or rail-ways, and staiths, to the ships: these are called keels, and are limited (by 11 and 15 Geo. III.) to $25\frac{1}{2}$ tons of lading, or 8 Newcastle

chaldrons of coals. The coals from the numerous coal-mines near this river were formerly delivered to the colliers or coal-ships lying below Newcastle bridge by means of the keels, but of late years several mines have been opened on both sides of the river, and the rail-ways therefrom are conducted to staiths or spouts on the quays, by which means the coals are shot at once into the holds of the ships. Wooden rail-ways were, since about the year 1680, in use between the mines and this river, some of them of considerable length, those to Tanfield-Moor are 10 miles long. In April 1798, an inclined-plane of 864 yards in length, was opened from Benwell, or Bywell collieries; in October 1803, a rail-way from Mr. Temple's Jarrow mine (128 fathoms deep) was opened to the river. No less than 35 sorts of coals, or rather the produce of as many pits, are usually shipped from this river for London, amounting to 700,000 chaldrons annually. On some of these mines, immensely large steam-engines are employed; in 1763, a new engine was erected at Walker colliery, with a cylinder 74 inches diameter and 40½ feet long, which weighed 6½ tons, and was calculated to lift 307 cwt. of water by each stroke of its pump. There is an ancient stone bridge of 9 arches over this river, which was greatly damaged by a flood in 1771; in 1801, it was suggested to remove as many of its piers as would form a 144 feet opening near the south bank, and to construct an iron arch over the same, high enough for the keels to pass without lowering their masts. The conservators of this river, in pursuance of the last of the above acts, have deepened and improved the same and its quays; in 1801, a new dry, or graving-dock, was opened at South Shields, capable of receiving ships at neap tides; in 1802, an act passed for building a new light-house at Tynemouth with reverberating lamps, instead of a coal fire blown by bellows, before used. In 1798, it was proposed to make a tunnel or road-arch under the Tyne river from North to South Shields for the passage of carriages and passengers, and the expense was estimated at 6,993 *l.* In 1795, the Newcastle and Carlisle canal was proposed to join this river near Newcastle; in 1796, the Newcastle and Haydon bridge, and in or before 1801, the Newcastle and Maryport were also proposed. In 1797, and again in 1802, the Durham and Chester-le-Street canal was proposed to join this river near Gateshead; and in 1803, the Tyne and Beamish canal was proposed through part of nearly the same tract.

279. *Tyne and Beamish Canal.* In 1803, it was proposed to make a canal from the Tyne river near Gateshead, through Gateshead, Wickham, Lamesly, and Birtly townships, to Beamish iron-works and coal-mines.

280. ULVER-

280. *ULVERSTONE CANAL.* Act 33 Geo. III. The direction of this short but large canal, is nearly N.W. for $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in Lancashire; its object is to admit ships to Ulverstone town. The canal is 65 feet wide at top, 30 feet at bottom, and 15 feet deep; the lock is 112 feet long; at the lowest neap tides there is a depth of 9 feet water at the gates, and at spring tides of 20 feet; a public swing-bridge is built at Hammerfide. It was completed about July 1797; the company were authorised to raise 7,000 *l.* the amount of their shares being 50 *l.* each.

281. *Uppingham Canal.* In 1793, it was proposed to make a canal from the town of Uppingham in Rutlandshire, to connect with the Leicestershire and Northamptonshire Union canal, and provision is made in its act (33 Geo. III.) for such junctions.

282. *USKE RIVER.* The direction of this river is nearly N. for about 4 miles in the county of Monmouth; its objects are the export of coals, iron, &c. and the trade of Newport; at Pill-Gwnelly it connects with the Monmouthshire canal, and with the Sirhowy tram-road.

283. *Wakefield and Hullet.* In September 1805 notices were given for a rail-way from the Calder and Hebble navigation at Bottom boat in Wakefield, to Hullet-hall collieries, with branches to Birstal and Smithic bridge in the west riding of Yorkshire.

284. *WARWICK AND BIRMINGHAM CANAL.* Acts 33 and 36 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for 25 miles in the counties of Warwick and Worcester; it crosses the grand ridge without a tunnel; its objects are the supply of Warwick with coals, &c. and forming part of the most direct water communication between Birmingham and London; at Kingswood in Rowington, this canal is joined by a branch from the Stratford canal. At Haseley there is a tunnel of 300 yards in length; at Henwood wharf there is an aqueduct over the Blythe river; near Flint Green another over the Cole river; and near its termination at Digbeth another over the Rea river. In May 1796, the northern end of the canal for nearly 9 miles to Henwood aqueduct was completed and opened; and, on the 19th of December 1799, the whole line was completed and opened. This company was authorised to raise 180,000 *l.*, the amount of their shares is 100 *l.* each.

285. *WARWICK AND NAPTON.* Act 34 and 36 Geo. III. The general direction of this canal, (at first called the Warwick and Braunston,) is nearly East for about 15 miles in the county of Warwick; it terminates near to the grand ridge, on its West side: its main object is, the opening of the most direct

direct line between Birmingham and London. This canal was completed on the 19th of December 1799. The company were authorised to raise 130,000 *l.*; the amount of each share being 100 *l.* but by the last act, the holders of the original 1000 shares, were authorised to contribute any further sum, and to be entitled to a proportionate dividend, with original shares, on such addition.

286. WAVENEY RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly S.W. by a bending course of about 23 miles between the counties of Suffolk and Norfolk: its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and export of agricultural products.

287. WEAR RIVER. Act 34 Geo. II. General direction nearly S.W. for about 10 miles in the county of Durham; its principal object is the export of coals. There is a rail-way of 7 miles in length from this river to Eaton-Main colliery, and a great number of others of considerable lengths, for conveying coals to the staiths and spouts where barges and ships are loaded with them. Eighteen different sorts of coals, or rather the produce of so many different pits, are usually shipped from this river for the London market, amounting in the whole to 195,000 chaldrons annually. In 1797, and again in 1802, the Durham and Chester-le-Street canal was proposed to join this river near Chester, and thence extend the navigation to Durham.

288. WEAVER RIVER. Act 7 Geo. I. and 34 Geo. II. General direction nearly S.E. by a crooked course of 20 miles in Cheshire; its objects are the import of coals and Cumberland red iron-ore, and the export of salt and agricultural products. The trustees for this navigation were authorised to borrow money at 5 *per cent.* interest, and 1 *per cent.* for the risk; in 1759, the debt amounted to 20,200 *l.*, borrowed at 5 and 4½ *per cent.*: this debt has long ago been paid off; and, there being no private interest in the concern, to the amount of 3000 *l.* has been paid in some years, to the county treasurer of Cheshire, to be laid out in amending and repairing the public bridges, and in the repair of high-ways leading to the salt-works, agreeable to the directions of the first act. The salt-mines at Northwich are 300 feet deep. In 1804, it was in contemplation to make a side-cut to this river, from near Frodsham, into the Mersey at Weston or Western point, for avoiding the bar or shoal at the mouth of this river.

289. WELLAND RIVER. Act 34 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 37 miles in the county of Lincoln and skirting that of Northampton; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c.; the export of Ketton free-stone, Collyweston white flates, agricultural products, &c.; near Crowland

land it connects with Catwater, a branch of the Nen river. In 1721, Mr. Nathaniel Kinderly recommended the cutting of a new channel, from near the mouth of Glen river to Wyberton near Boston, by which the out-fall of this river would be into the channel of the Witham river, instead of Fossdike wash. The subsequent contractions of the Welland river, by embankments near its mouth, somewhat improved the navigation to Spalding, and delayed until the year 1794 the adoption of Mr. Kinderley's proposed cut: in future the commencement of this navigation is to be in the tide-way of the Witham river at Wyberton roads, and it terminates at Stamford bridge. Commissioners are appointed for setting out, and employing proper persons to execute the new cut, sluices, locks, &c. and are to cleanse the channel of the Welland for some distance above the new cut, and erect a sufficient dam across the river below the entrance of the same at Shepherd's hole, to stop the tide waters and turn the land waters through the new cut. In 1797, it was stated that 10,000 *l.* had been subscribed for carrying the above new cut and improvements into effect. Trustees are appointed in the above act, for receiving the tolls and maintaining the works when completed by the commissioners.

290. *Welshpool and Leominster.* About the year 1794, a canal was proposed from the Montgomery canal and Severn river near Welshpool, to the Leominster canal at Woferton; passing Bishop's-Castle and Ludlow.

291. WEY RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly S.S.W. for $20\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of Surrey; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of chalk and agricultural products; at Westley near Weybridge, it is joined by the Basingstoke canal. From Guilford bridge to Godalmin is a canal $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles, with a rise of $32\frac{1}{2}$ feet: which is supplied by a feeder from the Wey at Godalmin. In 1791, and again in 1803, this navigation was proposed to be joined near Godalmin by a canal from the Itching river (see Portsmouth and Croydon). In 1800, the Grand Surrey was proposed to be extended to this river near Westley; and in 1802, a branch from the Grand Junction canal was intended to connect with this river by means of the Thames at Ham-Haw.

292. WHARFE RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly N.W. for about 9 miles between Ainsty Liberty and the West Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the carriage of coals, free-stone, &c. and the export of agricultural productions.

293. WHITEHAVEN BROOK. This brook is navigable but a very short distance, in a S.E. direction at its mouth, which
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is wide, constituting the harbour of Whitehaven in Cumberland: its chief object is the export of coals, lime, and free-stone. This harbour, situate on the Irish sea, has had several acts passed for its improvement, *viz.* 7 and 10 Anne, 13 Geo. II., 1, 2, 28, 32, and 45 Geo. III. and in September (1805) notices were given for a further application to parliament. There are several rail-ways from this harbour to the famous coal-mines in its vicinity. On the 4th of August 1738, the first rail or waggon-way was opened at this place, leading to Harrithwaite and Woodhouse collieries. On the 9th of August, 1803, the rail-way, 700 yards in length, passing over Branstyarch, or Road-bridge, to Howgil and Whingill coal mines, was opened: and in the same year those to Brackenthwaite mine were opened.

294. *Wibsey and Dewsbury.* In 1802, a rail-way was proposed from the Calder and Hebble navigation at Ravensbridge in Dewsbury, to Low-moor iron-works in Wibsey, about 7 miles in length.

295. *WILTS AND BERKS CANAL.* Acts 35 and 41 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. by a bending course of about 52 miles in the counties of Wilts and Berks: it crosses the grand ridge at the foot of the chalk-hills without any tunnel: its objects are the import of coals from both its extremities, the export of farming products, &c. On the Calne branch there is a short tunnel, under the road at Cuninghams park; and a principal aqueduct-bridge over Broadtown brook near Wotton-Basset. The company have been authorised to raise 311,900*l.* the amount of shares being 100*l.* each. In August 1799; the western end of the line was completed and filled, and on the 1st May 1801, by the completion of the Kennet and Avon to Semington, the junction was formed, and 22 miles of the line to the aqueduct near Wotton-Basset, with the Calne and Chippenham branches, have since been used, principally in bringing in Somersetshire coals. In September 1800, two branches of the Thames and Severn canal, by Faringdon and Highworth, were proposed to join this canal at Uffington and Shrivenham. In 1803, the Aylesbury branch of the Grand Junction canal was proposed to connect with this canal by means of the Isis river at Abingdon.

296. *Winston and Stockton.* In 1768, engineers surveyed the line for a canal from the Tees at Stockton; passing Hartburn, Cothams-flob, Moor-house, Oak-tree, Maidendale, Bank-top, Darlington, Cockerton, Lower-Walworth, Legg's-cross, Killerby, and Staindrop, to Winston: with a branch $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from Lower-Walworth to the Tees at Piersebridge; another from Darlington, 3 miles to Croft-bridge on the Tees; and another

another from Cotham-stob, 2 miles to the Tees at Yarm. The export of coals, lime, and lead, was the object of this proposed canal.

297. WISBEACH CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III. Direction nearly S. E. for 6 miles in the counties of Cambridge and Norfolk; its object is a communication between Wisbeach and Lynn, instead of an old part of the Nen river near it, which is almost grown up. This company were authorised to raise 20,000 *l.* the amount of each share being 105 *l.*

298. WITHAM (*old*) RIVER. Act Geo. II. General direction nearly N. W. for about 41 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c., the export of farming products, and forming part of the inland communication between Lynn and Hull, Liverpool, Manchester, &c. Near Tattershall it is joined by the Horncastle navigation; at Chapel-hill by the Sleaford navigation; and at Wyberton roads the new outfall and navigation of the Welland river are to join this river. This river below Boston, about 4 miles, was anciently so deep, and was so much frequented by ships, that in the 6th year of king John, when the merchants of London paid only 836 *l.* as a tax on their lands and goods, Boston contributed 780 *l.* A gradual decay and filling up of the channel and harbour took place to such a degree, that when, in 1761, Messrs. John Grundy, Langley Edwards, and John Smeaton examined the state of this navigation, and of the drainage of the adjoining fens, through which this river is embanked on both sides through nearly its whole length, owing to the long neglect of the banks, which should have confined the returning tide and the land-waters, so as to scour the channel, they reported that 30 ton barges could then scarcely reach Boston, while the navigation above that town was entirely lost, and the ancient channel was in several places entirely grown up and abandoned by the water in its ordinary state. Mr. Smeaton then recommended the erection of a sea-fluice upon this river below Boston, the sill thereof as low as low-water, with 3 openings, amounting to 50 feet wide; these to be furnished with doors pointing to sea-ward, and draw-gates behind them gauged, or having their tops, two feet below the surface of the fens, for always retaining a proper quantity of water in the river in dry seasons; also a sea-lock at the same place for the navigation, furnished with three pair of gates, two of them pointing to the land, and one to the sea: the straightening, enlarging, and deepening of the river above Boston to 80 feet at top, 50 at bottom, and 10 feet deep, were recommended, and the erection of three pound-locks, furnished with flood-gates or opening-weirs adjoining, below Lincoln, and one other such lock above.

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The estimate for such of these works as related to draining, was 38,000*l.*, and for the navigation works 7,370*l.* When Mr. Smeaton was afterwards consulted in the year 1782, he objected to a navigation lock which had been in the interim erected below Lincoln town, and recommended the cutting off the communication between Fossdyke canal and Brayford meer, by a pound-lock with gates pointing to the canal, and deepen this river through and above Lincoln bridge, and to remove Brayford head, so as to lower the water in Brayford meer: the principal wharfs appear to have been since made, and the trade of Lincoln is now carried on upon this meer or water. By the acts of 32 Geo. III. for Horncastle and Sleaford navigation, those companies were required to contribute equally with this company in the expenses of deepening and improving this river through Lincoln high-bridge, and thence to the Fossdyke canal, in the next 7 years; in consequence of which, goods passing on this river to or from the Horncastle or Sleaford navigations, are to pay only half the accustomed rates on this river. In 1803, it was in contemplation to further improve the navigation of this river below Lincoln.

299. WORCESTER AND BIRMINGHAM CANAL. Acts 31, 38, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for 29 miles in the counties of Worcester and Warwick; it crosses the grand ridge by a tunnel: its objects are the export of coals, and a more direct communication between Birmingham and the Severn river: at Selly Oak it is joined by the Dudley canal, and at Kings-Norton by the Stratford canal. The width of the canal at top is 42 feet, and the depth is 6 feet; the locks are 80 feet long and 15 feet wide; the boats are of 80 tons burthen. There are 4 or 5 principal, and several smaller culverts: the principal tunnel at West-heath is 2700 yards long, 18 feet high, and $18\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide within the arch, the depth of water is $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet; at Tardebig is another of 500 yards in length; at Shortwood is another of 400 yards in length; at Oddingley one of 120 yards; and at Edgbaston another of 110 yards in length: four of these tunnels are upon the summit-pound. The scheme of this canal was laid, and a bill was brought into parliament in 1790, but the opposition of interests, and natural difficulties of this vast undertaking then proved fatal to it. In May 1796, the eastern end of this canal, as far as the Stratford canal at Kings-Norton, was completed. The arching of the West-heath tunnel was begun on the 28th of July 1794, the whole of it was turned by the 25th of February 1797, (1780 yards of it having been completed in the year 1796) and in March 1797, the navigation was extended through it to Hopwood wharf, and in the following year, the same was extended

extended to the western end of the summit-pound at Tardebig. The company were authorised by their two first acts to raise 399,929*l.* 1*s.* 1½*d.*: their whole shares being made hereby, of the odd value of 138*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.* each: these were said to be depreciated in value almost to nothing; but in 1802, they had risen to 40*l.* each. The last act was for raising a further sum of money for completing the very difficult part of the line, and supplying lockage-water, by steam-engines to pump it up from the Severn, by reservoirs, &c. which yet remains to be accomplished. About the year 1793, a branch was proposed from this canal near Hanbury-hall to the Droitwich canal at that town.

300. WYE RIVER. The general direction of this rapid and romantic river is nearly N.W. by a very bending and crooked course of about 85 miles in the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, and Brecknock, in South Wales, and skirting the county of Gloucester; its objects are the carriage of coals, and the export of agricultural products; at Hereford it is approached very near, if not joined, by the Hereford and Gloucester canal. In 1802, the Dean-Forest rail-way was proposed to join this river at English-Bichnor, we believe; in the same year notices were given, for an intended rail-way from this river at Hereford, to join the same again opposite to Lydbrook; and in March 1805, another rail-way was proposed from this river to the Monmouthshire canal.

301. WYRLEY AND ESSINGTON CANAL. Acts 32 and 24 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. by a very crooked course of 23 miles in the county of Stafford: it terminates at its western end near, or upon the grand ridge: its object is the export of coals, iron, and lime, which abound in its course. There is a branch of 5½ miles to Hay-head lime-works; another of 2½ miles to Lord's-Hay coal-pits; another of near 4 miles at Wyrley-bank collieries, with a branch from this last near 1 mile to Essington new collieries; there is also a branch ½ a mile to near Walsall town, which terminates within ½ a mile of the branch of the old Birmingham thereto. This canal is 28 feet wide at top, 16 at bottom, and 4½ feet deep. The company were authorised to raise 160,000*l.* the first 35,000*l.* in 125*l.* shares; on the extension of the canal in 1794, the company were required to purchase the shares of certain discontented proprietors: the new shares are 100*l.* each.

302. YARE RIVER. The direction of this river is nearly W. by a bending course of about 22 miles in the county of Norfolk, its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural products: at Yarmouth this river is joined by the Thryn river, and at Burgh by Waveney river. In 1785, and in 1802,

1802, the London, Lynn, and Norwich, or North London canal, was proposed to join this river at Norwich.

303. YORE RIVER. Act 7 Geo. III.—This river, sometimes called the Ure-river, has nearly a N.W. direction for about 8½ miles in the west, and skirting the North Riding of Yorkshire; its objects are the supply of Borough bridge and Ripon, and the export of agricultural products: at Myton it is joined by the Swale river.

INSURANCE. The security of possession, and the power of averting a total loss by prudent precaution is of great importance in domestic as well as in foreign commerce. The insurances which under this head it is most necessary to consider are those against fire, and on lives.

FIRE. By this contract the insurer, in consideration of a certain premium received by him, either in a gross sum, or by annual payments, undertakes to indemnify the insured against all loss or damage which he may sustain in his houses or other buildings, goods and merchandize, by fire, during a limited term. The period at which this practice was introduced in England is not ascertained; but it certainly has been in use considerably more than a century.

BENEFITS. As every public undertaking has some obvious defects, it is observed with respect to insurance against fires, that many wise and intelligent persons have doubted whether, in a general, and national point of view, the benefits resulting from it are not more than counterbalanced by the mischiefs it occasions. Not to mention the carelessness and inattention which security naturally creates; every person who has a concern in any of the fire-offices, or who has attended the courts at Westminster for any length of time, must own, that insurance has been the original cause of many fires in London, with all their train of mischievous consequences. But on the other hand, serjeant Marshall observes, the advocates for this species of insurance, though they admit it to have been sometimes the cause of intentional fires; insist, that, even as a national concern, the benefits vastly outweigh the mischiefs which proceed from it. And when we recollect the precautions used by the different insurance companies, to prevent the spreading of conflagration by providing a number of fire-engines, which are kept in constant repair, and fit for immediate use, not only in all parts of the metropolis, but in every other considerable town in the kingdom; by keeping in constant pay, a number of engineers and firemen, expert in extinguishing fires, and porters for the removal of goods; by employing a number of these in patrolling the street at all hours of the night, in constant readiness to fly to the spot from whence any alarm of fire may proceed:

ceed. When we recollect that the courage, promptitude, and address of these people often stop the progress of the most dangerous fires, and thereby rescue many valuable lives, and immense property from destruction. When these benefits are fairly considered, it is impossible to deny that they greatly outweigh all the disadvantages that can be put in the opposite scale. To this enumeration of benefits may be added the security against the extension of conflagration afforded by the building act, which provides for the erection of party walls, and other regulations, and the great ease and confidence derived from experienced safety. The effect too of general insurance has been not only security, but a great reduction of rates. At first the premiums, without any tax, were considerably higher than they are now, when one half of the sum paid by the insurer, is a stamp duty.

PROPERTY. It is held that the person who insures must have an interest in the thing insured, especially as a statute, 14 Geo. III. c. 48, prohibits all insurances without interest, "*upon any event or events whatsoever.*" It often happens that no office will insure to the full amount required by a particular person, who has a large property to insure; and in such case, the party can only cover his whole interest, by several insurances made at different offices. But then it is proper, and by the regulations of the insurance offices it is often expressly required, that each should have notice of every insurance thus made on the same effects; for otherwise great frauds might be practised by insuring the same property to its full value, at several different offices at the same time.

RISK. By the terms of the usual policy, the insurers undertake to pay, make good, and satisfy to the insured all loss or damage, which may happen by fire, during the time specified in the policy, to the houses or other buildings, furniture, or merchandize insured, but in general there is an exception against military or usurped power, and in some policies, against civil commotion. On the latter subject, it was decided in the case of Mr. Langdale the distiller, that the riots in 1780 were included in the term civil commotion, and he could not recover against the office; but he did recover in an action against the hundred. And where, in a similar case, the office paid the amount insured, they were allowed to recover against the hundred. Fifteen days are generally allowed, after the time specified in the policy, for payment of the premium for the following term. In a court of law it has been decided, that a casualty, within these fifteen days, is not provided against, unless the insurance has been previously paid; but several offices imme-

diately gave public notice that they would not take advantage of that decision.

PROOF OF LOSS The form of the policy is nearly the same in all the offices. The principal difference between them consists in the terms of certain *propofals*, as they are called, to which the policies refer, as making part of the contract. One principal article, which is found in the propofals of several of the offices imports, that persons insured, sustaining any loss or damage by fire, are forthwith to give notice thereof at the office, and as soon as possible afterwards, deliver in as particular an account of their loss and damage, as the nature of the case will admit of; and make proof of the same by their oath or affirmation, according to the form practised in the said office; and by their books of accounts, or other proper vouchers, as shall be reasonably required; and procure a certificate under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, together with some other reputable inhabitants of the parish, not concerned in such loss, importing, that they are well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the person or persons insured, and do know, or verily believe, that he, she, or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have sustained by such fire, loss and damage, to the value therein mentioned: but, till such affidavit and certificate of loss shall be produced, the loss money shall not be payable. And, if there appear any fraud or false swearing, such sufferers shall be excluded all benefit of their policies. In the policies of these offices, the insurers undertake to pay the loss, not exceeding the sum insured, “*according to the exact tenor of their printed propofals*,” describing their propofals by their respective dates. Nothing can be more reasonable, in a case where there is so great temptation to fraud, than to require a testimonial from persons in public situations in the parish where a fire has happened, who have opportunities of informing themselves as to the characters of the insured, and the fairness of their claims; and who are not likely to connive at any fraud. “It is a duty,” says Mr. Justice Lawrence, “that the office owe to the public, as well as to themselves, to take every precaution to protect themselves against fraud; and unless some such check as the present were interposed, the office would be holding out a premium to wicked men to set fire to their own houses.”

OFFICES. The business of insurance against fire, is intirely carried on in offices established for that purpose. Their care in providing engines and firemen, the known honour of the governors and directors, and the general respectability of the establishments, have destroyed all possibility of competition to be attempted

attempted by individuals. Some offices are established in the large towns and cities of the kingdom, independent of those in the metropolis; but they are few in number, and their operations merely local, while the offices in London, by means of agents duly authorised, and properly stationed, extend their beneficial operations to all parts of the realm. Of the chief of these a short account is subjoined.

HAND IN HAND. The Hand in Hand is the oldest establishment for insurance against fire. The office was erected in the year 1696, by about one hundred persons, who, mutually agreeing to insure each others' houses from loss by fire, by an amicable contribution, entered into a deed of settlement for that purpose; which being signed by every person desirous of becoming a member, he or she is admitted into the joint contribution ship, and becomes a proportionate sharer in profit and loss. This deed of settlement was inrolled in chancery, January 24, 1698. The affairs of this community are managed by twenty-four directors, who serve gratis; which, together with their frugal and disinterested management, the considerable fund aforesaid, and a call of ten shillings *per cent.* on brick, and twenty on wooden buildings (which is the most that each contributor is obliged to pay, in case so great a loss should happen as to require the same, which hitherto has not happened, and probably never will) on any extraordinary event; a better security cannot well be devised. And as this office is calculated for the general good of the members, they have likewise the advantage separately to examine the deed of settlement, and all orders and proceedings, as well of the general courts, as those of the court of directors. This company keep in their service thirty firemen, who are uniformly clothed, and have each a badge.

SUN. This office was projected by John Povey, about the year 1706, for insuring merchandize and household goods, as well as houses, from fire, which, till then, was never done. Povey, having for some time carried on his project with success, disposed of it to certain purchasers; who, by a deed of settlement of the 7th of April, 1710, erected themselves into a society by the name of the *Sun Fire Office, for insuring houses, goods, wares, and merchandizes from loss and damage by fire.* This society, not confining themselves to the bills of mortality only, extended their insurance to all parts of the island, and raised a sum of forty eight thousand pounds for the safety of the insured. The undertaking has always been eminently prosperous; the office is in Craig's Court Charing Cross, and its management is intrusted to twenty-two directors, of whom one is chairman.

UNION. This office was erected in 1714, by a considerable number of persons, who mutually agreeing to insure one ano-

thers goods and merchandize (not houses) from loss by fire, by an amicable contribution, entered, February 16, 1715, into a deed of settlement for that purpose, which, being signed by every person desirous of becoming a member, he is thereby admitted into the joint contributionship, and becomes a proportional sharer in profit and loss. The deed was inrolled in chancery, July 8, 1715. Their affairs are managed by twenty-four directors. Their office is at No. 81 Cornhill.

WESTMINSTER. The Westminster Fire Office was established by deed, dated 13th of February 1717, and inrolled in chancery. Its objects are the same with those of the Hand in Hand; this office is in Bedford Street Covent Garden, and the directors, of whom one half annually retire, are eighteen. They have beside, a surveyor regularly employed.

ROYAL EXCHANGE. This society, pursuant to an act of parliament of the sixth George I. June 22, 1720, was incorporated by letters patent, by the name of the *Royal Exchange Assurance, for assuring of ships, goods and merchandize at sea, or going to sea, and for lending money on bottomry*. By which name they are to have perpetual succession, (yet subject to redemption by parliament) with a power to sue, and be sued in courts of record, or elsewhere; to have a common seal; to purchase lands, &c. in mortmain, to the amount of 1000*l. per annum*, and to grant, alien or demise, the same at pleasure. In consideration of these advantages, the corporation was to advance to the king 300,000*l.* without interest for thirty-one years. Towards raising this sum, and paying all just demands to be made on their policies, the company were empowered to raise a sum not exceeding 1,500,000 to be called the stock of the corporation; and in case the government should think fit to repay the aforesaid sum of 300,000*l.* within, or at the expiration of the term above mentioned; then, on three years notice given by parliament in the London Gazette, and at the Royal Exchange, the corporation to cease. By a second charter, this corporation is empowered not only to insure houses, goods, ships, &c. from fire, but likewise to assure lives. Their offices are up stairs in the Royal Exchange London, and in Pall Mall; they have a governor, sub, and deputy governor, twenty-four directors, and proper officers.

LONDON. This society, pursuant to an act of parliament of the sixth George I. was incorporated by letters patent, June 22, 1720, by the name of the *London Assurance, for assuring of ships, goods, and merchandizes at sea, or going to sea; and for lending money upon bottomry*. This charter was grounded on a similar consideration, the advance of 300,000*l.* and similar in extent, and subject to redemption on the same terms, with that
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of the Royal Exchange Company. This company had also a second charter, dated 29th April, Anno 1721, enabling them to assure lives. They are under a direction similar to that of the Royal Exchange Company.

These two last mentioned societies, from the critical time when they were projected, were among the objects of speculation in the famous year of delusion (1720) generally called the South Sea Year. At that time the subscriptions to the Royal Exchange Company, of 100*l.* rose to 250*l.* and shares in the London, on which 12*l.* 10*s.* had been deposited, rose to 175*l.* As these projects, however, had a solid basis, those who purchased shares, although they might pay too dearly for them, were not left, like the adventurers in so many other bubbles, to lament a total loss.

PHŒNIX. The fire offices already mentioned, with one or two others, whose concerns are very limited, and which were discontinued, transacted all the business in that way till 1782, when a new establishment was formed, and assumed the name of the Phœnix. This society under the management of nineteen directors, was speedily and eminently prosperous. As one of its claims to favour was the reduction of premium, the example it set was speedily followed by other offices, and thus the public gained the usual advantage which results from competition, that of obtaining a given benefit at smaller expense than before. The offices are in Lombard-street, and at Charing-Cross.

BRITISH. In 1798, a society was established under this title, for insuring houses, goods, and ships in harbour against fire. Its offices are in the Strand and Cornhill.

GLOBE. In 1799, the king was empowered to give a charter to a new company, to be incorporated under the form of *the Globe Insurance Company*, who proposed to make insurances on lives, and against loss by fire; to buy or sell annuities for lives, or on survivorship; to grant sums payable at future periods, either at home or abroad; to receive deposits; to act as treasurer for benefit societies and other benevolent institutions; to make provision for clergymen and their widows and children; and to receive deposits from members of the industrious classes of society and others, payable at a period of not less than six months. This company consists of near nine hundred proprietors; and their capital is one million. The great extent of this undertaking, and some powers claimed by the projectors, were the subject of much controversy. The management is at present confided to a chairman and deputy chairman, and twenty-three directors, but general meetings of the proprietors are held on certain occasions, and their whole capital is actually paid in and invested.

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PHOENIX. The fire offices already mentioned, with one or two others, whose concerns are very limited, and which were discontinued, transacted all the business in that way till 1782, when a new establishment was formed, and assumed the name of the Phoenix. This society under the management of nineteen directors, was speedily and eminently prosperous. As one of its claims to favour was the reduction of premium, the example it set was speedily followed by other offices, and thus the public gained the usual advantage which results from competition, that of obtaining a given benefit at smaller expense than before. The offices are in Lombard-street, and at Charing-Cross.

BRITISH. In 1798, a society was established under this title, for insuring houses, goods, and ships in harbour against fire. Its offices are in the Strand and Cornhill.

GLOBE. In 1799, the king was empowered to give a charter to a new company, to be incorporated under the form of *the Globe Insurance Company*, who proposed to make insurances on lives, and against loss by fire; to buy or sell annuities for lives, or on survivorship; to grant sums payable at future periods, either at home or abroad; to receive deposits; to act as treasurer for benefit societies and other benevolent institutions; to make provision for clergymen and their widows and children; and to receive deposits from members of the industrious classes of society and others, payable at a period of not less than six months. This company consists of near nine hundred proprietors; and their capital is one million. The great extent of this undertaking, and some powers claimed by the projectors, were the subject of much controversy. The management is at present confided to a chairman and deputy chairman, and twenty-three directors, but general meetings of the proprietors are held on certain occasions, and their whole capital is actually paid in and invested.

IMPERIAL. This company was formed in 1803. Its objects are merely those of insuring buildings, goods, and ships in harbour. It is under the management of twenty-one directors, and the proprietors stand engaged to advance, when necessary, a capital of 1,200,000*l.* Their offices are in Sun Court Cornhill, and St. James's Street.

ALBION. A company under this name was formed in 1805, including the insurance of lives with that against all other accidents by fire. Its office is in Change Alley Cornhill.

INSURABLE PROPERTY. To display at one view the importance of these institutions, it is proper to subjoin the following most curious and interesting paper.

Estimate of the property in Great Britain and Ireland, insurable from loss by fire; by Sir Frederick Morton Eden, Bart.

		£	s	£
Houses in London	100,000 average net rent	30		3,000,000
in other towns in England, &c.	570,000	-	10	5,700,000
in the country of England	200,000	-	5	1,000,000
land and Wales	600,000	-	2	1,200,000
	400,000	-	1 10	600,000
	1,870,000			11,500,000

Value at a little above 17 year's purchase	200,000,000
Machinery, such as steam engines, spinning works, &c.	40,000,000
Houses and Machinery in Scotland	30,000,000
	270,000,000

Furniture in houses, &c. taken at half the value of the houses	135,000,000
Household stock, not considered as furniture, viz.	

	£
Clothes	15,550,000
Plate	10,000,000
Jewels and trinkets,	5,000,000
Clocks and watches	2,000,000
Books	5,000,000

Wine

TRADE.

375

Wine, Spirits, &c.	£ 2,000,000
Household linen -	3,000,000
Horses and Carriages	2,000,000
Other articles -	5,450,000

Total in England and Wales } 50,000,000

The same articles in Scotland } 5,000,000

Value of furniture and household stock 55,000,000 190,000,000

AGRICULTURAL STOCK, the annual crop being estimated at

8,000,000 quarters of wheat at 40 s. 16,000,000

5,000,000 ————— barley and rye

24 s. - - - - - 6,000,000

12,000,000 ————— oats and beans

16 s. 8d. - - - - - 10,000,000

hay and straw 20,000,000

Value of the crop (exclusive of peas, rape and hops) - - - 52,000,000

Deducting for present consumption, remains infurable value - - - 32,500,000

BRITISH MANUFACTURES, classed as follows :

Woollen goods, annual produce, 19 millions, annual export 8 millions.
Stock on hand for home consumption - - - 11,000,000

Cotton goods, produce 10 millions :
stock for home consumption - 6,000,000

Flaxen goods - ditto - - 2,000,000

Hempen goods - ditto - - 2,000,000

Silk goods - ditto - - 3,000,000

Leather, in shoes, boots, saddlery, harnesses, military accoutrements, carriages, &c. - - - 12,000,000

Glass, (plate glass very much improved of late) - - 2,000,000

Porcelain, and pottery (much improved in the last 20 years) - 2,000,000

Paper, (increased in price and quantity) 1,500,000

Hardware, made at Birmingham, Sheffield, &c. probably above - 6,000,000

B b 4

Beer,

Beer, annual consumption 200,000,000 gallons at 1 s.	-	-	-	£	10,000,000	£
Spirits, ann. consumption 10,000,000 gallons at 8 s.	-	-	-		4,000,000	
Soap, reckoning for 2,260,802 families, at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per week; above	-				1,500,000	
Salt, 46,000 tons of 40 bushels each (without making any allowance for smuggled salt)	-	-			1,000,000	
Candles, wax and tallow, above					2,000,000	
White lead and other colours for painters and dyers, turpentine casks, and vats for liquors, drugs, hats, straw work, snuff, horn, books, furniture, musical instruments, watches, jewellery, coaches and other carriages, printing apparatus, salted beef, pork, butter, fish, &c. pro- bably at least	-	-			10,000,000	
Annual amount of manufactures for home consumption	-	-			76,000,000	
British manufactures for exportation, value in 1800, almost	-				40,000,000	
Total of British manufactures	-				116,000,000	
Foreign merchandize; the imports of 1800 were above	-	-			55,000,000	
					171,000,000	
Of British and foreign merchandize, besides what remains in the East India Company's warehouses un- insured, there may be stated, as on hand, and therefore insurable	-	-			39,000,000	
Shipping, belonging to Great Britain and Ireland, valued at	-				20,000,000	
Belonging to the colonies	-				2,000,000	
Vessels on the stocks	-	-			1,000,000	
					23,000,000	
Of these at least one fourth may be estimated as stock in hand in Bri- tish ports and insurable from fire					5,750,000	
Total insurable property in Great Britain					537,250,000	Property

Property of every kind, insurable in Ireland, estimated at	£ 53,725,000
Total property in the United kingdom, insurable from loss by fire	590,975,000

Besides the above there are stocks of coal, alum, and other minerals, boats and other fresh water craft, arsenals, offices and other public buildings, of the value of which no estimate can be made.

LIVES. The insurance of a life is a contract whereby the insurer, in consideration of a certain premium, either in a gross sum, or by annual payments, undertakes to pay the person for whose benefit the insurance is made, a stipulated sum of money, or an annuity equivalent, upon the death of a person whose life is insured; *whenever it shall happen*, if the insurance be for the whole life, or *in case it shall happen within a certain period*, if the insurance be for a limited time. The precarious dependence of a numerous family upon the life of a single person, naturally suggests the idea of seeking some protection against a calamity, which sooner or later must befall them; and this, probably, occasioned insurances upon lives, as an expedient by which a pecuniary indemnity, at least, might be secured to the sufferers, sufficient to rescue them from the poverty and distress with which they were threatened. Upon this principle rests the utility of insurances upon lives. Persons having incomes determinable upon their own lives, or the lives of others, arising from landed property, from church livings, from public employments, pensions, annuities, &c. by paying such an annual premium as they can spare from their present necessities, may secure to their widows, their children, or other dependents, an adequate sum of money, or an equivalent annuity, payable upon their deaths. By such insurances also, may the fines to be paid upon the renewal of leases, or the descent of copy-holds, be provided for. So, where a person, having only a life income, wants to borrow money, but can only give his own personal security for it, he may, by insuring his life, secure to the lender the repayment of his money, though he should die before he is enabled to discharge the debt.

OFFICES. These considerations induced the bishop of Oxford, and several other benevolent persons in the reign of Queen Anne, to apply for the charter by which the corporation, called the *Amicable Society*, was established; to enable persons to subscribe part of their incomes, in order that the representatives of each subscriber should, upon their death, receive such sums as the funds

funds of the corporation would enable them to pay upon the several deaths happening each year. But as the benefits of this society were confined to a limited number of subscribers, and those only for small sums, several other corporations and companies upon more extensive plans have been established. The *Royal Exchange* and *London Assurance* companies obtained charters from George I. to enable them to make insurances upon lives. The society for *Equitable Assurances* on lives and survivorships, was established in the year 1762, by deed inrolled in the court of King's Bench at Westminster, in which every person that insures becomes a member, participating in the profit and loss of the society. The success attending this establishment has given rise to others; namely, the *Westminster Society*, for insurance on lives and survivorships, and granting annuities; the *Pelican* life insurance company; to these may be added the offices already mentioned, where the business of insurance on lives is carried on together with that against fires, and a few others, as the *Annuity Society for the benefit of widows*, the *Laudable Society* for the same purpose, and the *Life Assurance Society, for the benefit of widows and female relations*. The business is not however confined to these offices, private policies being frequently effected.

WARRANTY. It is generally a condition or warranty in insurances upon lives, either inserted in the policy, or contained in a declaration or agreement signed by the insured, that the person whose life is meant to be insured has not any disorder which tends to the shortening of life; that he has or has not, had the small pox; and that his age does not exceed so many years; that this declaration shall be the basis of the contract between the insurers and the insured; and that, if any untrue averment be contained therein, the contract shall be void, and all money paid on account of the insurance forfeited; and as this declaration is to be taken as part of the written contract amounting to a warranty, it behoves every person who makes an insurance upon a life, to be very circumspect in ascertaining the truth of the allegations contained in it; because upon that the validity of the contract must depend. By the warranty that the person, whose life is to be insured, *has no disorder which tends to the shortening of life*, is not to be understood that he is perfectly free from the seeds of all disorder. The warranty is sufficiently true if he be in a reasonably good state of health, and, that his life may be insured on the common terms, for a person of his age and condition.

MODE OF INSURING. In the office of the *Equitable Society* and most of the others, an assurance is effected in this manner. The party whose life is to be the object of the policy goes to the

the office, and fills up a printed proposal with his name and profession, place, and date of birth, present residence, age, (which must include the current year, that is to say, he who was twenty on his last birth day, is stated to be twenty-one) the term and assurance to be effected, and a declaration whether the party has had the small pox, or is afflicted with the gout. It is also required that a reference be given to two respectable persons, one of whom should be a medical man, to ascertain the party's health. A deposit is made, proportioned to the sum to be insured, which is to be forfeited if the policy fails to be completed through neglect of the proposer. The person to be assured also appears in person before a committee of the directors, who for that purpose, generally, allot a day in every week. The appearance may however be dispensed with, on paying a certain advance on the premium. Before the policy is delivered, the party, for whose use it is made, by himself or his agent, signs a declaration, containing in substance the allegations in the paper of the proposals, and allowing, that if any untrue averment is contained in the declaration, all monies which shall have been paid to the society, on account of the insurance made in consequence thereof, shall be forfeited.

INTEREST AND RISK. The spirit of gaming on lives by means of policies of assurance is restrained by the statute 14 Geo. III. c. 48, which declares all insurances void, where the persons making them have no interest. The different insurance companies annex to the contract certain conditions or exceptions. The *Royal Exchange Assurance* declares every insurance made by a person *on his own life* to be void, if the person whose life is insured, shall depart the limits of Europe, shall die upon the seas, or enter into any military or naval service whatsoever, without the previous consent of the company, or shall die by suicide, duelling, or the hands of justice. When the insurance is made by a person, *on the life of another*, death, "by suicide, duelling, or the hand of justice" is not excepted. The *Westminster Society* adopts the same exceptions. The *Equitable Assurance*, and the *Pelican Life Insurance*, adopt the same exceptions, only omitting the word *duelling*, even where the party insures his own life.

Considering the great multiplicity of insurances, which have of late years been made upon lives, serjeant Marshall observes, the litigated cases that have arisen upon them, are extremely few. One principal reason is, that the happening of the event insured against, is always a fact of easy proof, which can scarcely ever afford any subject of dispute: another is the great difficulty of practising any fraud in such insurances. But to no cause is this fortunate circumstance more to be ascribed, than to the
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known integrity and liberality of the several companies engaged in this branch of insurance.

TRADE IN GENERAL.

Having detailed these particulars, it is now thought proper to notice, in a miscellaneous way, some circumstances which affect trade in general, although chiefly objects of domestic regulation.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, By the 27th chapter of *Magna Charta*, the weights and measures ought to be the same over all England, and those to be according to the king's standards of weights and measures, kept in the exchequer by a special officer of his house, called the clerk or comptroller of the market.

Of weights there are two sorts, used at present through all England; viz. troy weight and avoirdupois. By troy weight are weighed bread, corn, gold, silver, jewels, and liquors; the apothecaries and goldsmiths have the same pound, ounce, and grain; but they differ in their intermediate divisions; but although the apothecaries make up their medicines by troy-weight, they buy their drugs by avoirdupois-weight.

Avoirdupois (which in French signifies to have full weight) exists by custom, but is confirmed by statute; and thereby are weighed all kinds of grocery wares, drugs, butter, cheese, flesh, wax, pitch, tar, tallow, wool, hemp, flax, iron, steel, lead, and all other commodities which bear the name of garbel, and from which comes a refuse or waste; (and also bread, by the 31st Geo. II. c. 29.) and this has to the pound sixteen ounces; and twelve pounds over are allowed to every hundred.

The troy ounce is more than the avoirdupois ounce; for fifty-one ounces troy, are equal to fifty-six ounces avoirdupois; but the avoirdupois pound is more than the troy pound; for fourteen pounds avoirdupois, are equal to seventeen pounds troy-weight.

Measures are either applicative or receptive; the smallest applicative measure is a barley corn, whereof three in length make a finger's breadth, or inch; four inches make an hand; three hands a foot; one foot and a half a cubit; two cubits a yard; in a yard are sixteen nails; one yard and a quarter an ell; a Dutch ell or stick, by which tapestry is measured, is but three quarters of a yard; five feet make a geometrical pace; six feet a fathom; sixteen feet and a half make a perch, pole, or

or rod; but there are other customary perches or poles; viz. eighteen feet for fens and woodland; twenty-one for forest, Lancashire, and Irish measure; and $18\frac{3}{4}$ Scotch; forty perches make a furlong; eight furlongs or 320 perches, make an English mile; which, according to the statute of 11 Henry. VII. ought to be 1760 yards, 5280 feet; that is, 280 feet more than the Italian mile; sixty miles (more exactly, sixty-nine English miles and an half) make a degree; and 360 such degrees, or 24,840 miles, compass the whole globe of the earth. Horses are measured by the hand. For measuring of land in England, forty perches in length, and four in breadth, make an acre, so called from the German word acker, and that from the Latin word ager. Thirty acres ordinary, make a yard land; an hundred acres are accounted an hide of land; and six hundred and forty acres a mile square. Of timber forty-three solid feet make a ton; and fifty three feet a load.

Receptive measure is two-fold; of liquid, or moist things; and of dry things.

The ordinary smallest receptive measure is called a pint: two pints make a quart; two quarts make a pottle; two pottles make a gallon, a gallon of beer, or the measure containing 282 solid inches, and holds of rain water 10 lbs. 3 ozs. $\frac{240}{1000}$ avoirdupois; eight gallons a firkin of ale; two such firkins make a kilderkin; and two kilderkins, or thirty-two gallons, make a barrel of ale; and twelve barrels a last; nine gallons a firkin of beer; two such firkins, or eighteen gallons, make a kilderkin; two such kilderkins, or thirty-six gallons, make a barrel of beer; one barrel and an half, or fifty-four gallons, make an hogshead; two hogsheads make a pipe or butt; and two pipes a tun, consisting of 1728 pints or pounds; a barrel of butter or soap is the same with a barrel of ale.

The English wine measures are smaller than those of ale and beer, and hold proportion as about four to five. So that four gallons of beer measure are almost five gallons of wine measure; and each gallon of wine is 231 cubical inches, eight pounds, one ounce, and eleven drams avoirdupois of rain water: of these gallons a runlet of wine holds eighteen; half an hogshead thirty-one gallons and an half; a tierce of wine holds forty-two gallons; an hogshead sixty-three gallons; a puncheon eighty-four gallons; a pipe or butt holds one hundred and twenty-six; and a tun two hundred and fifty-two gallons, or 2016 pints.

To measure dry things, as corn or grain, there is first the gallon which is bigger than the wine gallon, and less than the ale or beer gallon, containing $272\frac{1}{4}$ cubical inches, and nine pounds, thirteen ounces, twelve drams and an half avoirdupois

pois weight. Two of these gallons make a peck, four pecks a bushel, four bushels the comb or curnock, two curnocks make a quarter, seam, or ruff, and ten quarters a last, which contains 5120 pints, and so many pounds troy-weight; so that a garrison of five thousand men, allowing each but a pound of bread per diem, will consume near a last, or eighty bushels, every day; and two hundred and fifty men in a ship will drink a tun of beer in two days, allowing each man about a pottle per diem.

Meal is weighed as corn; but the common repute is, that a gallon of wheaten meal weighs seven pounds avoirdupois, and eight pounds six ounces, four penny-weights troy; so a bushel is fifty-six pounds avoirdupois, and sixty-eight pounds, one ounce, twelve penny-weights troy. All other grain, and so likewise salt, lime, coals, &c. follow this measure, which is called Winchester measure. But note, that where sea coal and salt are measured with this bushel, then they are heaped, or else there are allowed five striked pecks to the bushel, and this is called water measure. Thirty-six bushels are a chaldron of coals; and on ship board they allow twenty-one chaldrons to the score.

Notwithstanding the many statutes which have been enacted, that there shall be but one weight and one measure throughout the realm, the force of custom is often too powerful for law, and weights and measures of the same denomination imply different quantities in different parts of the kingdom. But in legal construction, no weights or measures can be taken notice of, except those recognised by law. Thus, if a man should contract for pounds or yards, in a place where the custom is to sell eighteen ounces for a pound, or thirty-eight inches for a yard, still, in strict law, his contract would be satisfied if the seller delivered to him at the rate of sixteen ounces and thirty-six inches.

By 8 Hen. VI. c. 5, and subsequent statutes; In every city, borough, and town, a common balance shall be, with common weights sealed, and according to the standard of the exchequer, upon the common costs of such city, borough, or town, in the keeping of the mayor or constable; on pain of 10 *l.* for such city making default, borough 5 *l.* and town, where a constable is, 40*s.*

At this balance, all the inhabitants may freely weigh, without any thing paying; and justices of the peace, mayors, bailiffs, and stewards of franchises, may inquire of offenders against this ordinance, and do execution of them that be found faulty by inquests, or by their own examination. The clerk of the market, and where there is none, the mayor or head officer,
or

or other person having benefit of the market, shall cause to be sealed all measures duly gauged, brought to them for that purpose; and the mayors and other head officers in market towns, shall twice a year, or oftener, cause all weights and measures within the same, to be brought before them and examined; and such as they find defective, to be broken and burnt; and the offender shall forfeit to the mayor or other officer, for the first time, 6s 8d; for the second time, 13s 4d; and the third time 20s. and be set on the pillory. Selling by false weights and measures, is also an offence at the common law, and consequently may be punished on indictment, by fine and imprisonment.

By 35 Geo. III. c. 102. The justices, at every quarter sessions, were to appoint persons to examine weights and balances, and to seize and destroy those that were false or unequal, and a penalty was imposed on the person in whose possession the same were found; which part of the said act is by 37 Geo. III. c. 143, repealed and it is enacted, that the justices at their respective petty sessions within their divisions, districts, and places, may appoint persons, with power to examine the weights and balances within such division, district, or place. And these persons (having been first sworn duly and faithfully to execute such office) shall, as often as the said justices shall direct, in the day time enter into shops, mills, or other premises, and into the stalls or standing places of persons selling by retail, and search for, view and examine all the weights and balances therein, and seize those that are not according to the standard, or any false or unequal balance there found, and shall detain the same, to be produced at such petty sessions upon the hearing of the information hereafter mentioned; and the person in whose custody the same shall be found, shall, upon conviction in such petty sessions, upon view, confession, or oath of one witness, forfeit not exceeding 20*l*. nor less than 5*s*. as such sessions shall think fit, together with the costs, which may be levied by distress, by warrant of two justices; who shall cause such false weights and balances to be broken and rendered useless, and the materials thereof to be sold, and the money arising from such sale, together with the amount of such forfeitures, shall be paid to the treasurer of the county, to be applied in carrying those acts into execution; and the residue (if any) shall go to the county stock: and such justices shall sign a return of the sums so raised, and cause the same to be transmitted to the clerk of the peace at every quarter session. And the justices shall purchase, for the use of their respective counties, out of the county rate, proper weights, according to the standard in the exchequer, which shall be deposited for the inspection of all persons, either with the respective clerks of
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the peace, or with some proper person in such convenient place within each county, as the justices shall direct, and shall be produced by the person in whose custody they are lodged (upon reasonable notice) at such time and place as any person shall, by writing under his hand, require and appoint, on his paying the reasonable charges of producing the same.

Provided, that if the majority of the inhabitants of any parish, township, or place, be desirous that any person shall be specially appointed to examine the weights and balances within such places, and shall (at a vestry to be holden for that purpose) nominate one or more substantial house holder or house holders, to be approved at a special sessions for the division, such person, being so approved, shall have the same power as any person appointed for the district. But no such appointment can be made, until the inhabitants have procured standard weights, to be deposited with the person so appointed, for the use of such place; and such petty sessions may order the charges of procuring such weights, and the recompense to be allowed to the person so appointed for his trouble, to be paid out of the poor rate. Persons obstructing those who are acting in the execution of this statute are liable to a penalty, not exceeding forty shillings, nor less than five; and persons punished under this act, shall not be otherwise punished by any other law. But it is to be observed, that these statutes apply to weights and balances alone, and not to measures, and therefore in many parishes, which are regulated by special acts of parliament, it has been found necessary to introduce a clause in their acts, enabling the select vestry, or other regulating body, to appoint inspectors, both of weights and measures.

AUCTIONS. The sale by auction is not peculiar to modern commerce; the curious trace it to a remote period of antiquity, without ascertaining its origin. It possesses many advantages, not unmixed with fraud and inconvenience, but the benefits greatly outweigh the abuses. The mode of selling by auction generally practised, is too well known to need description; a peculiar practice is that termed a *sale by candle*, which is when a small piece of candle being lighted, the by-standers are allowed to bid for the merchandize which is selling; but the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the last bidder.

By 19 Geo. III. c. 56, and other statutes, every auctioneer is obliged to take out an annual licence of six shillings, in which must be set forth his true name and place of abode; the penalty on omission is, within the bills of mortality 100 l., elsewhere 50 l. The auctioneer, within the jurisdiction of the head excise office in London, must also give bond to the king, with two sureties

sureties, himself in 1000 *l.* and his sureties in 200 *l.* each; that he will account for the sales, and pay the duties reserved by the various statutes; in other places the security is; the party in 500 *l.*, and two securities in 50 *l.* each.

The duties on goods sold by auction are; on estates, shares in joint stock of chartered companies, ships, and reversions, sixpence in the pound. Furniture, fixtures, pictures, books, horses, and carriages, and all other goods and chattels whatsoever, tenpence in the pound. And the auctioneer, besides the bond given on receiving his licence, gives a further bond with two sureties in 5000 *l.* that he will, within fourteen days after every such sale, deliver an account thereof at the next excise office, and will not sell any goods contrary to the directions of the act. From these duties there are, for the benefit of trade, numerous exceptions; they are, piece goods sold by auction, wove in this kingdom, sold entire in the piece or quantity as taken from the loom, and in lots of the price of 20 *l.* or upwards; and sold in no other than entered places, and openly shewn and exposed at such sale. Corn and grain of every sort, flour and meal, pork, hams, bacon, cheese, and butter, imported into Great Britain, on the first sale. Goods imported by way of merchandize from Yucatan; elephant oil produced from sea cows or sea elephants; whalebone, ambergris, and head matter, skins of seals, and other animals living in the sea; elephant's teeth, palm oil, dying wood, drugs and other articles for dyer's use; mahogany and other manufactured wood for the use of cabinet makers and other manufacturers, imported in British ships from Africa, America, or any British settlement abroad, on the first sale at auction, by or for the account of the original importer; so as such sale be made within twelve months after the goods are imported, and the same be sold by a licensed auctioneer. The exemptions also extend to sales of estates or chattels made by the order of the court of chancery or exchequer, or courts of great sessions in Wales; any sales made by the East India or Hudon's Bay companies; by order of the commissioners of excise; the board of ordnance; commissioners of the navy or victualling offices; by the sheriff, for the benefit of creditors, in execution of judgments; goods distrained for rent, or non payment of tithes; effects of bankrupts sold by assignees; goods imported by way of merchandize from any British colony in America, being of the growth or manufacture of such colony, on the first sale, on account of the original importer, so as such sale be made within twelve months after importation; ships or their cargoes condemned as prize, and sold for the benefit of the captors; ships or goods wrecked or stranded, sold for the benefit of the insurers, or

proprietors; goods damaged by fire and sold for the benefit of insurers; auctions held on the account of the lord or lady of the manor for the granting any copyhold or customary messuages, lands, or tenements, for the term of a life or lives, or any number of years, to be created by the person on whose account such action shall be held; sales of wood, coppice, produce of mines or quarries, or materials for working the same, or for the sale of any cattle, and live or dead stock, or unmanufactured produce of land, so as such last mentioned sale be made whilst they continue on the lands producing the same, and by the owner of such lands, or proprietor of, or adventurer in, such mines or quarries, or by their steward or agent. Many regulations are established for prevention of frauds in the collection of these duties; but, to encourage sales by auction, they are remitted on goods bought in, by the person putting them up to sale, or by his agent employed at the sale under a notice in writing signed as well by him as the person intended to be the bidder, being appointed by the owner, and having accordingly agreed to bid for the use of the seller.

As few professions require a greater share of ability than that of an auctioneer, so there are few in which industry, ability, and integrity have been more amply and honourably rewarded. On the other hand, in describing the cheats and swindlers who infest the metropolis, Mr. Colquhoun has the following paragraph. Swindlers who take out licences as auctioneers, and open shops in different parts of the metropolis, with persons at the doors usually denominated barkers, inviting strangers to walk in. In these places various articles of silver, plate, and household goods are exposed to sale, made up on a slight principle, and of little intrinsic value; associates, generally denominated puffers, are in waiting to bid up the article to a sum greatly beyond its value, when upon the first bidding of the stranger it is knocked down to him, and the money instantly demanded; the goods however on being carried home and examined, are generally found to be very different in reality, from what their appearance exhibited, and upon a close examination the fraud is discovered. Neither the common law, nor the act of the 30th Geo. III. cap. 24, seem to be sufficiently *broad* and explanatory to include this species of offence; and hence it is that this mode of selling goods continues with impunity, and seems to increase. It is not, however, meant here to insinuate that all petty auctions are fraudulent. It is to be hoped there may be some exceptions, although, probably they are not numerous.

APPRENTICES. In mechanical or handicraft trades, husbandry, mercantile navigation, and some other employments, a species

species of servants is retained, under the name of apprentices so called from *apprendre*, to learn. They are usually bound for a term of years, and must be so by deed indented or indentures, to serve their masters, and be maintained and instructed by them. Sometimes very large sums are given with them, as premiums for such, their instruction. There are many old statutes regulating the conditions of persons who shall take apprentices, and obliging some to be bound, but many of these are become obsolete. But there are other statutes limiting the number to be entertained by each master, which in particular trades, are still adhered to; and no person can be bound to enter into any apprenticeship after the age of twenty-one. Indentures made by infants are binding, provided they are for the term of seven years, but every indenture of an infant, is voidable, at his election, on his attaining his majority.

By various statutes, the church-wardens and overseers, or the greater part of them, by the assent of two justices, may bind any such children, whose parents they shall judge not able to maintain them, to be apprentices where they shall see convenient, till such child, if male, shall come to the age of twenty-one, and, if female, to the age of twenty-one, or be married; the same to be as effectual to all purposes as if such child were of full age, and by indenture of covenant bound him or herself. By 32 Geo. III. c. 57, after reciting, that in indentures of parish apprentices, it has been usual to insert several agreements and covenants to be done and performed by the several parties thereto, and amongst other things, that the master shall, during the term of such apprenticeship, find and allow to such apprentice, sufficient meat, drink, apparel, lodging, and all other things needful for an apprentice; it is enacted, that in all parish indentures, where no more than 5*l.* shall be given with such apprentice, there shall be annexed to the covenant in such indentures for such maintenance as aforesaid, a proviso declaring, that such covenant shall not be made to continue and be in force longer than three calendar months next after the death of such master, in case he shall die during the term of such apprenticeship: and in case such proviso be omitted in such indenture, the covenant for maintenance shall be in force for no longer time than three calendar months next after the death of such master; any thing in any such covenant to the contrary notwithstanding. If the master becomes insolvent, or so far reduced as to be unable to employ or maintain such apprentice; two justices, where such master lives, may, on request of the master, inquire into the matter, and discharge the apprentice; but this, only in cases where no apprentice fee exceeding 5*l.* has been given. The

overseers are obliged to register such apprentices in a book, which must be signed by two justices, and if they refuse to produce, or if they obliterate or deface it, they are liable to a penalty of 5*l.*, and if the apprentice is assigned over during his apprenticeship, that is also registered.

A master may by law correct and chastise his apprentice, for neglect or other misbehaviour, so it be done with moderation: but he may not of his own accord discharge his apprentice, but if they cannot agree, the master is empowered by 5 Eliz. c. 4, to repair to one justice of the county, or to the mayor or other head officer of the city, town corporate, or market-town, or other place where the master dwells; who shall take such order and direction between the master and his apprentice as the equity of the case shall require: and if, for want of good conformity in the master, the justice or head officer cannot compound and agree the matter, he shall take bond of the said master to appear at the next sessions; and on his appearance, and hearing of the matter there, if it be thought meet to discharge the said apprentice, then the justices, or four of them at the least, or the mayor or other head officer, with the consent of three other of his brethren, or men of best reputation in such city, town corporate or market-town, shall have power, in writing under their hands and seals to pronounce and declare, that they have discharged the apprentice of his apprenticeship, and the cause thereof: and the said writing, being inrolled by the clerk of the peace, or town clerk, amongst the records, shall be a sufficient discharge for the apprentice, against his master, his executors, and administrators. And if the default shall be found to be in the apprentice, then the said justices, or mayor or other head officer, with the assistance aforesaid; shall cause such due correction and punishment to be administered unto him, as by their wisdom and discretion shall be thought meet. By other statutes, on complaint to two justices, by any parish apprentice, or other apprentice, upon whose binding out no larger sum than 5*l.* was paid, concerning any misusage, refusal of necessary provision, cruelty, or other ill treatment, they may summon the master or mistress, to appear before them, at a reasonable time to be named in such summons; and on proof upon oath of the truth of the said complaint (whether the master or mistress be present or not, if service of the summons be also upon oath proved) the said justices may discharge the apprentice by warrant or certificate under their hands and seals, for which warrant or certificate no fee shall be paid. Where any parish apprentice shall be so discharged, the justice may order the master to deliver up to the apprentice his cloaths; and also to pay the church-wardens or
overseers

overseers of the place to which the apprentice belongs, any sum not exceeding 10*l.* to be applied by them, under the order of the justices, for the original binding out such apprentice, or otherwise for his benefit; and also to pay any sum not exceeding 5*l.* in case the master refuses to deliver up such cloaths; these sums on refusal to be levied by distress, with the costs. And the justices may compel the church-wardens and overseers, to enter into recognizance for the effectual prosecution, by indictment, of the master, for the ill treatment of his apprentice; and order the expenses of such prosecution to be paid or reimbursed, one moiety out of the poor rates of the parish, and the other out of the county rate. Or two justices in petty sessions may impose, upon conviction, any reasonable fine not exceeding 40*s.* upon such master, as a punishment for such ill usage: and if not paid, may levy the same by distress; to be applied at their discretion, either to the use of the poor, or for the benefit of the apprentice, towards recompense for the injury he may have sustained by reason of such ill usage.

Two justices may also, on complaint on oath by any master or mistress, against any such apprentice, concerning any misdemeanor, miscarriage, or ill behaviour, hear and determine the same, and punish the offender, by commitment to the house of correction, there to remain and be corrected, and held to hard labour for a reasonable time, not exceeding one calendar month, or otherwise by discharging such apprentice. In all these cases, persons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter sessions.

By 6 Geo. III. c. 25, if any apprentice shall absent himself from his master's service, before the term of his apprenticeship shall be expired, he shall, at any time thereafter, whenever he shall be found (so it be within seven years after the expiration of his term); be compelled to serve his said master, for so long time as he shall have absented himself; unless he shall make satisfaction to his master for the loss he shall have sustained by such absence: and if he shall refuse so to serve, or to make satisfaction, the master may complain upon oath to one justice where he shall reside; who shall issue his warrant for apprehending such apprentice. And such justice, on hearing the complaint, may determine what satisfaction shall be made to such master by the apprentice. And if the said apprentice shall not give security to make satisfaction according to such determination, such justice may commit him to the house of correction for any time not exceeding three months.

The enticing of an apprentice to depart from his master is not an offence of a public nature, for which an indictment will

lie ; but the party's remedy is by an action on the case. An apprentice is protected also from being impressed.

By the common law, no man may be prohibited to work in any lawful trade, or in more trades than one, at his pleasure : so that without an act of parliament, no man may be restrained, either to work in any lawful trade, or to use divers mysteries or trades ; therefore an act of parliament made to restrain any person herein, must be taken strictly and not favourably, as acts made in affirmance of common law. The restraining clause in the statute of 5 Eliz. c. 4. is as follows : it shall not be lawful to any person, to set up, occupy, use or exercise, any craft, mystery, or occupation, now used or occupied within the realm of England and Wales, except he shall have been brought up therein seven years at the least, as an apprentice by this statute, nor to set any person on work therein, except he shall have been apprentice as aforesaid, or else, having served as an apprentice, will become a journeyman, or be hired by the year ; on pain of 40s. a month ; half to the king ; and the other to the informer. By the 15 Chas. II. c. 15. Hemp-workers of all kinds, net makers, and makers of tapestry hangings are excepted ; they may set up, without having served seven years ; and by 3 Geo. III. c. 8. All officers, mariners, and soldiers, who have been employed in his majesty's service, and not deserted, may exercise such trade as they are apt for, in any town or place. And by 6 and 7 W. c. 17. An apprentice discovering two offenders guilty of coining, so as they are convicted, shall be deemed a freeman, and may exercise his trade as if he had served out his time.

A person may work as a journeyman who has not served a regular apprenticeship ; or a person brought up to the trade may take a partner, who has not served an apprenticeship to the trade, provided the partner share only in the profits or loss of the business, and do not actually exercise the trade. And the words of the statute "*now used*", are construed to refer to the 12th of January, 1562, when that parliament began ; no trades therefore, but such as were trades at the time of making this statute, are within it. This statute has of late years been regarded by the courts with an unfavourable eye, as being in derogation of the liberty of the subject, and in restraint of the freedom of trade. It has almost become inoperative by the construction it has received, and it may be at any time rendered altogether nugatory by a party unqualified reaping the profits of a trade by means of a qualified partner.

JOURNEYMEN AND SERVANTS. The consideration of these two classes becomes connected because of the extensive signification of the term servant, and the similarity of regulation which

which prevails with respect to journeymen in trades, and domestic servants.

HIRING. By the 5 Eliz. c. 4. persons brought up in certain mechanical trades, and not being married, or if married, not being above thirty years of age, nor having an estate of inheritance of 40s. a year, nor being worth 10*l.*, nor exempted by serving a nobleman, gentleman, or other person, nor by holding a farm, must, on request made by any person using the art and mystery wherein the said person has been exercised, be retained, and serve for a term to be agreed on, or if no term agreed on, for one year at the least, and of the end of the service, except the servant is turned away for misconduct, a quarter's notice is to be given. In similar manner, persons aged between twelve and sixty, who do not fall within certain descriptions enumerated in the statute, are compellable to serve in husbandry. Women between twelve and forty years of age, may also be compelled to serve, by two justices, or by the mayor or other officers in towns corporate, by the year, week, or day, for wages to be by them fixed; and if they will not consent may be committed to prison till they do. If a servant retained for a year, happen within the time of his service to fall sick, or to be hurt or disabled by the act of God, or in doing his master's business, the master must not therefore put such servant away, nor abate any part of his wages for such time.

CHARACTER. A master is not bound to give a servant any character at all, but if he gives any, it must be a true one. If a false character is given to the prejudice of a servant, he can maintain an action for damages; and the 32 Geo. III, after reciting, that false and counterfeit characters of servants have either been given personally or in writing by evil disposed persons, contrary to truth, and to the peace and security of his majesty's subjects; enacts that, if any person shall falsely personate any master or mistress, or the executor, administrator, wife, relation, housekeeper, steward, agent, or servant of any such master or mistress, and shall, either personally or in writing, give any false, forged or counterfeited character of any person offering to hire; every such person so offending shall forfeit 20*l.* a similar penalty is extended to other false representations, and to servants offering themselves with false stories, or with forged or false certificates of character.

WAGES, &c. The statute of Elizabeth, which is very minute in its provisions, empowers the justices, annually, at Easter sessions, to fix the rate of wages for artificers, handicraftsmen, husbandmen, labourers, servants, and workmen; which rates are to be proclaimed, and kept among the records

of the county or town corporate, and the master must not exceed them, under the penalty of 5 *l.* and all contracts for such exceeding wages are void. The same statute also directs the number of hours in which the artificers and labourers so hired shall work, and how many shall be allowed them for food and repose. And persons refusing to work in harvest time, are to be set in the stocks two days and a night.

RESPONSIBILITY. The responsibility of a master for the act of his servant is thus explained and illustrated by Sir William Blackstone. As for those things which a servant may do on behalf of his master, they seem all to proceed on this principle, that the master is answerable for the act of his servant, if done by his command, either expressly given, or implied: *nam qui facit per alium, facit per se.* Therefore, if the servant commit a trespass by the command or encouragement of his master, the master shall be guilty of it: though the servant is not thereby excused, for he is only to obey his master in matters that are honest and lawful. If an inn-keeper's servant rob his guests, the master is bound to restitution: for as there is a confidence reposed in him, that he will take care to provide honest servants, his negligence is a kind of implied consent to the robbery; *nam, qui non prohibet, cum prohibere possit, jubet.* So likewise if the drawer at a tavern sells a man bad wine, whereby his health is injured, he may bring an action against the master: for although the master did not expressly order the servant to sell it to that person in particular, yet his permitting him to draw and sell it at all is impliedly a general command. In the same manner, whatever a servant is permitted to do in the usual course of his business, is equivalent to a general command. If I pay money to a banker's servant, the banker is answerable for it: if I pay it to a clergyman's or a physician's servant, whose usual business it is not to receive money for his master, and he embezzles it, I must pay it over again. If a steward lets a lease of a farm, without the owner's knowledge, the owner must stand to the bargain; for this is the steward's business. A wife, a friend, a relation, that use to transact business for a man, are *quoad hoc* his servants; and the principle must answer for their conduct; for the law implies, that they act under a general command; and without such a doctrine as this no mutual intercourse between man and man, could subsist with any tolerable convenience. If I usually deal with a tradesman by myself, or constantly pay him ready money, I am not answerable for what my servant takes up upon trust; for here is no implied order to the tradesman to trust my servant: but if I usually send him upon trust, or sometimes on trust and sometimes with ready money, I am answerable for all he takes up;
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for the tradesman cannot possibly distinguish when he comes by my order, and when upon his own authority. And if, Mr. Christian adds, I once pay for what my servant bought upon trust, without expressing any disapprobation of it, it is equivalent to a direction to trust him in future; and I shall be answerable for all he takes up upon credit, till an express order is given to the tradesman not to give him further credit. If a servant, lastly, by his negligence does any damage to a stranger, the master shall answer for his neglect: if a smith's servant lames a horse while he is shoeing him, an action lies against the master and not against the servant, but in these cases the damage must be done, while he is actually employed in the master's service; otherwise the servant shall answer for his own misbehaviour. Upon this principle, by the common law, if a servant kept his master's fire negligently, so that his neighbour's house was burned down thereby, an action lay against the master; because this negligence happened in his service: otherwise, if the servant, going along the street with a torch, by negligence sets fire to a house; for there he is not in his master's immediate service; and must himself answer the damage personally. But now the common law is, in the former case, altered by statute 6 Ann. c. 3. which ordains that no action shall be maintained against any, in whose house or chamber any fire shall accidentally begin; for their own loss is sufficient punishment for their own or their servants carelessness. But if such fire happens through negligence of any servant (whose loss is commonly very little) such servant shall forfeit 100 l. to be distributed among the sufferers; and, in default of payment, shall be committed to some workhouse, and there kept to hard labour for eighteen months. A master is lastly, chargeable if any of his family layeth or casteth any thing out of his house into the street or common highway, to the damage of any individual, or the common nuisance of his majesty's liege people: for the master has the superintendence and charge of all his household. And this also agrees with the civil law; which holds that the *pater familias*, in this and similar cases, "*ob alterius culpam tenetur, sive servi liberi.*" We may observe, that in all the cases here put, the master may be frequently a loser by the trust reposed in his servant, but never can be a gainer; he may frequently be answerable for his servants misbehaviour, but never can shelter himself from punishment by laying the blame on his agent. The reason of this is still uniform and the same; that the wrong done by the servant is looked upon in law as the wrong of the master himself; and it is a standing maxim, that no man shall be allowed to make any advantage of his own wrong. If a man intice
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away the servant of another; an action against him will lie at the suit of the first master.

TESTIMONIAL. No servant retained in husbandry, or in any of the arts mentioned in the statute of Elizabeth, after the time of his retainer expired, shall depart from one city, town, or parish, to another; nor out of the lathe, rape, wapentake, or hundred; nor out of the county where he last served, to serve in any other city, town corporate, lathe, rape, wapentake, hundred or county; unless he have a testimonial under the seal of the said city or town corporate, or of the constable or other head officer, and of two other honest householders of the city, town, or parish, where he last served, importing that he is licensed to depart, and at liberty to serve elsewhere. This testimonial is to be delivered to the servant, and also registered by the minister of the parish where the master dwells, taking twopence for the same; and no person that shall depart out of a service, shall be retained or accepted into any other service, without shewing (before his retainer) such testimonial to the chief officer of the town corporate, and in every other town and place, to the constable, curate, church-warden, or other head officer; upon pain that every such servant so departing without such testimonial, shall be imprisoned till he procure one; which if he cannot do in twenty-one days, he shall be whipped and used as a vagabond, according to the laws in such case provided; and every person retaining such servant, without shewing such testimonial, shall forfeit 5 *l.*, half to the king, and half to him that shall sue in the sessions, or other court of record; and if any such person be taken with a counterfeit testimonial, then to be whipped as a vagabond. If servants run away into another county, they may be retaken by warrant and put in prison, till they find security well and honestly to serve their masters.

ASSAULTS. A servant, workman, or labourer, making an assault upon his master or mistress, or any other person having oversight over him or his work, is to be committed to prison for a year or less, or in aggravated cases, to suffer such further punishment, not extending to life or limb, as the justices in session shall think convenient. The master is allowed by law, with moderation, to chastise his servant being under age: a servant too may justify an assault in defence of his master, but not a master in defence of his servant; because he might have an action for the loss of his service.

DISPUTES. The relation between master and servant has occasioned the enactment of many laws for restraining the frauds and injuries which the servant has so many opportunities of committing,

committing, though these are framed with a tender regard to the weakness of human nature exposed to great and frequent temptations. Disputes between masters and workmen are also the objects of many statutes which it would be tedious here to enumerate. They regard the masters and workmen in silk, cloth, woollen, linen, fustian, leather, cotton, bone and thread lace, the manufacturers of clocks and watches, and paper, as well as those employed in husbandry, artificers, handicraftsmen, miners, colliers, keelmen, pitmen, glassmen, potters, and other labourers. There are also separate laws for regulating taylors, and shoemakers, and their workmen, within the bills of mortality; an abstract of them all will be found in Burn's Justice; article Servants.

COMBINATIONS. By 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 106, the 39 Geo. III. c. 81; for preventing unlawful combinations of workmen is repealed. It is enacted that all contracts, covenants, and agreements, whether in writing or not, entered into by any journeymen, manufacturers, or other persons, for obtaining an advance of wages, or for lessening or altering their usual hours or time of working, or decreasing the quantity of work (except any contract made between any master and his workmen on account of his work or service), or for hindering any person from employing whomsoever he may think proper, or for controlling, or any way affecting any person carrying on any manufacture, trade, or business, in the conduct or management thereof, shall be illegal, null, and void, to all intents and purposes whatsoever. Journeymen workmen and others making such contracts, may be committed by two justices to goal not exceeding three, or to the House of Correction, not exceeding two calendar months. Journeymen or workmen entering into combinations for such purposes, or who shall by giving money, or by persuasion, solicitation, or intimidation, or any other means, wilfully and maliciously endeavour to prevent any unhired, or unemployed workman in any manufacture, trade or business or any other person wanting employment therein, from hiring himself to any manufacturer, tradesman, or person conducting any manufacture, trade, or business; or who shall for the purpose of obtaining an advance of wages, or for any other purpose, contrary to the provisions of this act, wilfully and maliciously decoy, persuade, solicit, intimidate, influence, or prevail, or attempt to prevail, on any journeyman or workman, or other person hired or employed in any such manufacture, trade or business, to leave the same; or who shall wilfully and maliciously hinder, or prevent any manufacturer, tradesman, or other person, from employing any such workman as he shall think proper; or who, being hired or employed, shall, without
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any just or reasonable cause refuse to work with any other journeyman or workman employed to work therein; shall be committed to gaol not exceeding three months, or to the House of Correction to hard labour not exceeding two calendar months. And every person (whether employed in any manufacture or not) who shall attend any meeting held for the purpose of entering into any contract, covenant, or agreement hereby declared illegal; or who shall summon, give notice to, call upon, persuade, entice, solicit, or by intimidation, or any other means, endeavour to induce any journeyman, workman, or other person employed in any manufacture, trade or business, to attend any such meeting; or who shall collect, demand, ask, or receive any money from any such workman, or other person, for any of the purposes aforesaid; or who shall persuade, entice, solicit, or by intimidation or any other means, endeavour to induce any such journeyman, workman, or other person to enter into, or be concerned in any such combination; or who shall pay any money, or enter into any subscription or contribution for the support or encouragement of any such illegal meeting or combination; and who shall be convicted thereof, on confession, or on the oath of one witness, before two justices, within three calendar months, shall be subject to similar punishment. Persons giving money as a subscription or contribution to pay expenses incurred contrary to this act, or maintaining any workman or other person offending, to forfeit not exceeding 10 *l.* and those who receive, not exceeding 5 *l.*, and on non payment, the parties to be imprisoned as before mentioned. All money given as a subscription or contribution for such purposes to be forfeited; half to the king, and half to the informer; and those who hold the money in their hands must make discovery on oath.

All contracts between masters or other persons for reducing the wages of workmen, or for altering the usual hours of work, or for increasing the quantity of work, shall be void; and every master being thereof convicted, by the oath of one witness, before two justices, within three calendar months, shall forfeit 20 *l.*; half to the king, and the other half in equal shares to the informer and the poor, or be committed to gaol or the House of Correction not more than three nor less than two months.

The same statutes also establish a very beneficial mode of terminating disputes between masters and their workmen, by arbitration, the submission to which, with the award or umpirage may be on unstamped paper.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE. Under this head it is intended to give a brief account of this most useful species of currency, in its various branches, without entering into those technical explanations,

nations, and detailing the numerous decisions which form the subject of many ample treatises.

FOREIGN BILLS. The custom of merchants in relation to foreign bills of exchange, seems to have prevailed time out of mind; and was at first introduced for the expedition of trade and its safety, and to prevent the exportation of money out of the realm; and has therefore been always countenanced and encouraged, as a matter of great ease and advantage to trade, and is now become part of the law of the land; and as bills of exchange are established merely by the custom of merchants, and for their benefit; so their rules and customs are allowed to prescribe their form and several properties, as to their creating engagements on the parties that are concerned in them. By this custom, if a merchant abroad draw a bill on a merchant here, or *vice versa*, requesting him to pay a certain sum of money, and the drawer set his name to it; this amounts to a promise to pay, and subjects him, though it is but a collateral engagement, to an action on the non payment. And if the drawee, or he on whom the bill is drawn, refuse to accept, or, having accepted it, refuse to pay it, the payee, or he in whose favour it is drawn, may protest it, and shall recover against the drawer, not only the principal sum, but likewise all interest, costs and damages, by reason of the protest or refusal of acceptance, or payment of the money.

But though the custom of merchants, in relation to bills of exchange, is established by common law, and such bills being securities for money, are of great credit among them; yet are they not allowed to be securities of as high a nature as bonds or specialties; and therefore it has been adjudged, that a bill of exchange is within the statute of limitations, and must be sued for within six years after it becomes payable. Also, a bill of exchange is to be considered as a simple contract debt in a course of administration, which an executor or an administrator cannot discharge before debts by bond. But bills of exchange and promissory notes, though, according to the general principles of the law, they are to be considered only as evidence of a simple contract, are yet so far regarded as specialties, that unless the contrary be shewn by the defendant, they are always presumed to have been made on a good consideration; nor is it incumbent on the plaintiff, either to shew a consideration in his declaration, or to prove it at the trial. Foreign bills were always intitled to this privilege; but it was not without a considerable struggle that it was extended to inland bills; and notes were indebted for it to the statute of Queen Anne.

USANCE. Bills of exchange are usually drawn payable on sight, or after date, or on single, double, or treble usances.

An usance is said to be regularly a month ; but yet varies according to the custom of particular countries ; usance between London and any part of France, is thirty days after date.—Between London and the following places ; Hamburg, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Antwerp, Brabant, Zealand and Flanders, one calendar month after the date of the bill. Between London and Spain and Portugal, two calendar months.—Between London and Genoa, Leghorn, Milan, Venice, and Rome, three calendar months.—The usance of Amsterdam on Italy, Spain, and Portugal, is two months.—On France, Flanders, Brabant, and on any place in Holland or Zealand, one month.—On Frankfort, Nuremberg, Vienna, and other places in Germany, on Hamburg and Breslaw, fourteen days after sight, two usances twenty-eight days, and half usance seven.—Half usance when the usance is one month, shall contain fifteen days, notwithstanding the inequality in the length of the months.

SETS OF BILLS. It is frequent to draw two or three for the same sum, and of the same date, for fear of loss or miscarriage, which carry a condition with them that only one shall be paid.

PAYMENT. Where the time, after the expiration of which a bill is made payable, is limited by months, it must be computed by calendar, not lunar months : thus, on a bill dated the first of January, and payable one month after date, the month expires on the first of February. Where a bill is payable so many days after sight, or from the date, the day of presentment or of the date is excluded. Thus, where a bill, payable ten days after sight, is presented on the first day of a month, the ten days expire on the eleventh ; where it is dated the first, and payable twenty days after date, these expire on the twenty first. Where there is no date, and the payment is directed to be made so many days after date, the date is taken to be the day on which it issued.

GRACE. A custom has obtained among merchants, that a person to whom a bill is addressed, shall be allowed a little time for payment, beyond the term mentioned in the bill, called days of grace. But the number of these days varies according to the custom of different places.

Great Britain, Ireland, Bergamo, and Vienna, three days.

Frankfort, out of the time of the fair, four days.

Leipsick, Naumburg, and Augsburg, five days.

Venice, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Antwerp, Cologne, Breslaw, Nuremberg, and Portugal, six days.

Dantzick, Koningzburg, and France, ten days.

Humburgh and Stockholin, twelve days.

Naples

Naples eight, *Spain* fourteen, *Rome* fifteen, and *Genoa* thirty days.

Leghorn, *Milan*, and some other places in *Italy*, no fixed number.

Sundays and holidays are included in the respite days at London, Naples, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Middleburg, Dantzick, Koningsburg, and France; but not at Venice, Cologne, Breslaw, and Nuremburg. At Hamburgh, the day on which the bill falls due makes one of the days of grace, but it is not so elsewhere. In England, if the last of the three days happen to be on Sunday, the bill is to be paid on the Saturday; or if on Good Friday or other great holiday, on the preceding day; but bills payable at sight, are to be paid without any days of grace.

INLAND BILLS. Inland bills of exchange are those drawn by one merchant residing in one part of the kingdom, on another residing in some city or town within the same kingdom; and these also being found useful to trade and commerce, have been established on the same foot with foreign bills.

PROMISSORY NOTES. The increase of trade and necessity of paper credit, put bankers and others upon an expedient of bringing promissory notes within the custom of merchants, and making them negotiable, as inland bills of exchange; but this the judges would not admit of, promissory notes being only considered, by the common law, as evidences of a debt, and not assignable or negotiable in their own nature. This defect was however remedied by a statute of Queen Anne, which enables them to be transferred by indorsement. A promissory note, in its original form of a promise from one man to pay a sum of money to another, bears no resemblance to a bill of exchange. When it is indorsed, the resemblance begins, for then it is an order by the indorser to the maker of the note, who, by his promise, is his debtor, to pay the money to the indorsee. This is the exact definition of a bill of exchange. The indorser of the note corresponds to the drawer of the bill; the maker to the drawer or acceptor; and the indorser to the payer, or party to whom the bill is made payable. When this point of resemblance is once fixed, the law is fully settled to be exactly the same in bills of exchange and promissory notes: and as some confusion has arisen in the books from an inattention to the real analogy between them, it may be proper to observe, that whenever the law is reported to have been settled with respect to the acceptor of a bill, it is to be considered as applicable to the drawer, or as he may, with more propriety, be called, the maker of a note; when with respect to the drawer of a bill, then to the first indorser of the note: the subsequent

indorsers and indorsees bear an exact resemblance to one another.

STAMPS. Till the 23 Geo. III. these notes and bills were written on a plain piece of paper unstamped: by a statute made in that year, certain duties were imposed on every piece of vellum, parchment, or paper, on which bills and notes, falling under certain descriptions, should be written, engrossed, or printed; these have been since much augmented, and the frauds and evasions being prevented, the duty on inland bills and negotiable notes has become a most productive source of revenue.

SMALL NOTES. It having been found by experience, that trade and commerce suffered materially from the circulation of bills, notes, and drafts for very small sums, which passed as cash, and many of them being made payable under certain terms and restrictions with which the poorer sort of manufacturers, artificers, labourers, and others could not comply, without subjecting themselves to great extortion and abuse, the legislature has thought proper to lay certain restraints on bills or other notes under a limited sum; and therefore by 15. Geo. III. c. 51, all notes and bills for the payment of any sum under twenty shillings, which had been issued *before* the 24th of June 1775, were made payable on demand. Notes and bills for less than twenty shillings, issued *after* the 24th of June, 1775, are declared void. And any person publishing or uttering such bills or notes, or in any manner engaged in the negotiation of them, is liable to a penalty of not more than 20 *l.* nor less than 5 *l.*, to be recovered and applied in the manner pointed out by the act, which was to continue for five years. The good effects of this act being found, further provisions for the same purpose were made by another; 17 Geo. III. c. 30. All promissory or other notes, bills of exchange, or drafts, or undertakings in writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the payment of twenty shillings, or for any sum of money above that sum and less than 5 *l.* or on which 20 *s.*, or above that sum, and less than 5 *l.* should remain undischarged, issued after the first of January 1778, must specify the names and places of abode of the persons respectively to whom or to whose order they shall be made payable; and shall bear date before or at the time of drawing or issuing them, and not on any subsequent day; shall be made payable within the space of twenty-one days next after the day of the date; and shall not be transferable or negotiable after the time limited for the payment: and every indorsement shall be made before the expiration of that time, and bear date at or before the time of making it, and shall specify the name and place of abode of the person or persons to whom

whom, or to whose order the money is to be paid: and the signing of every such note, &c., and also every indorsement, shall be attested by one subscribing witness at the least; and all notes, &c. of the above description not having these requisites shall be utterly void. The same penalties, recoverable in the same way as in the former act, are imposed on every one uttering, publishing, or negotiating such notes, &c. without the requisites prescribed. And all negotiable notes, &c. issued before the first of January, for any sum between the sum of 20 s. and 5 l., or on which 20 s. or less than 5 l. remained undischarged, are made payable on demand, and this act and the former act are continued not only for the residue of the five years of the former, but also for other five years. And by a subsequent statute, both the former are made perpetual.

LIABILITY TO PAY. Every drawer of a bill is liable to the payment thereof, as is every acceptor and indorser: also, if there are several indorsers of the same bill, the last indorser may bring his action against the first indorser, or any of them; for the indorsement is *quasi* a new bill, or at least a warranty, as some books express it, by the indorser, that the bill shall be paid. But though the drawer, acceptor, and indorser, are all liable, yet the party can have but one satisfaction: but, until such satisfaction is actually had, he may sue all, or any of them. Neither is the engagement of an indorser discharged by an effectual *execution* against the drawer, or any prior or subsequent indorser.

INDORSEMENT. Indorsement is a term known in law, which, by the custom of merchants, transfers the property of the bill or note to the indorsee; and is usually made on the back of the bill, and must be in writing; but the law has not appropriated any set form of words, as necessary to this ceremony; and therefore it has been held, that if a man write on the back of a bill of exchange; *This is to be paid to J. S., or, The contents of this bill is to be paid to J. S.,* and set his hand to it, this is a good indorsement. But these special or precise indorsements are only necessary where the maker of them wishes to limit the payment for some particular reason, otherwise it is usual to transfer notes and bills by writing on them the name of the payee, only, and this is called indorsing in blank. On a bill specially indorsed, the person named in the indorsement alone can recover, unless he has indorsed it over, but on a bill indorsed in blank, any holder may recover, even though it may have passed through many intermediate hands without their indorsement. A bill payable to a man's order is payable to himself, and he may bring an action thereon.

A bill or note may be indorsed at any time after it has issued, even after the day of payment. However, the indorsement of a note after it is due, throws a degree of suspicion upon it, and in an action against the maker by the indorser, the former is in such a case intitled to go into evidence to shew, that the note has been paid as between him and the indorser.

ACCEPTANCE. An acceptance, by the custom of merchants, as effectually binds the acceptor, as if he had been the original drawer; and having once accepted it, he cannot afterwards revoke it. And it is said, that a very small matter will amount to an acceptance; and that any words will be sufficient for that purpose, which shew the party's assent or agreement to pay the bill; as, if upon the tender thereof to him, he subscribes, *accepted*; or, *accepted by me A. B.*; or, *I accept the bill, and will pay it according to the contents*; these clearly amount to an acceptance. So if the party underwrites the bill presented such a day, or only the day of the month; this is such an acknowledgment of the bill as amounts to an acceptance. So if the party says, *leave your bill with me, and I will accept it*; or, *call for it to-morrow, and it shall be accepted*; these words, according to the custom of merchants, as effectually bind, as if he had actually signed or subscribed his name according to the usual manner. But if a man says, *leave your bill with me, I will look over my accounts and books between the drawer and me, and call to-morrow, and accordingly the bill shall be accepted*; this does not amount to a complete acceptance; for the mention of his books and accounts shews plainly that he intended only to accept the bill, in case he had effects of the drawer's in his hands. But where the drawer wrote a letter to the person, in whose favour the bill was drawn, to this purport, *that if he would let him write to Ireland first, he would pay him*; this was held a good acceptance. So, where a foreign bill was drawn on the defendant, and being returned for want of acceptance, defendant said, that if the bill came back again he would pay it; this was ruled a good acceptance. It seems clear that a parol acceptance is sufficient at common law to charge the acceptor; also it has been adjudged, since the statute 3 and 4 Ann. c. 9. that an indorsee of an inland bill of exchange may maintain an action against the acceptor, on a parol acceptance, as to the principal sum, though not as to interest and costs; for the act being made to give a further remedy for interest, damages, and costs against the drawer, cannot be supposed to take any advantage from the payee which he had before; and therefore the true construction of the act is, that to charge the drawer with interest and costs, the drawee must

must refuse to accept it in writing ; nevertheless, if he accepts the bill by parol, he is liable to the principal sum in the bill, as he would have been before the act.

A bill drawn on two, must regularly have a joint acceptance ; but if there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill drawn on both, for him and partner, this shall bind both, if it concerns the trade ; otherwise, if it concerns the acceptor only in a distinct interest and respect. If a book-keeper or servant, having authority, or usually transacting business of this nature for his master, accept a bill of exchange, this shall bind his master.

It is held that an acceptance may be qualified, as thus ; I accept this bill, half to be paid in money, and half in bills ; and this is good by the custom of merchants ; for he who may refuse the bill totally, may accept it in part ; but he, to whom the bill is due, may refuse such acceptance, and protest it so as to charge the drawer. Also it is said, that after such acceptance and refusal of payment, he has the same liberty of charging the drawer, which he had in case the bill had been accepted absolutely, and payment refused. So, the drawee may accept the bill, to pay it at a longer day than that on which it is made payable, and this shall bind him ; but herein care must be taken, that the drawee, by such acceptance or agreement, be not a sufferer. The acceptance may direct the payment to be made at a place different from that mentioned in the bill, as, at the house of a banker ; in which case, if the holder neglect to demand payment within a reasonable time, and the banker afterwards fail, he must stand to the loss. But if the banker continue solvent, the holder is not bound to prove a demand on the banker in an action against the acceptor. If the acceptance be in writing, and the drawee intend that it should be only conditional, he must be careful to express the condition in writing as well as the acceptance ; for if the acceptance should, on the face of it, appear to be absolute, he cannot take advantage of any verbal condition annexed to it, if the bill should be negotiated and come to the hands of a person unacquainted with the condition, and even against the person to whom the verbal condition was expressed, the burden of proof will be on the acceptor.

The effect of the acceptance is to give credit to the bill, and to render the acceptor liable according to the tenor of his acceptance ; the very act of acceptance implies an acknowledgment that he has effects of the drawer in his hands. If therefore the drawee accepts a bill generally, and by reason of his non-payment, the drawer is obliged to pay it, the latter, as drawer, may maintain an action against him, not only for the

principal sum, but in case of a protest, for damages, interest, and costs. If indeed the drawee have no effects of the drawer in his hands, and notwithstanding accept the bill, he has his remedy, if he pay it, against the drawer, but with regard to every body besides, the acceptor is considered as the original debtor, and to be intitled to have recourse against him, it is not necessary for the holder to shew notice given to him of non-payment by any other person. When a bill is once accepted absolutely, it cannot in any case be revoked, and the acceptor is at all events bound, though he hear of the drawer's having failed the next moment, even if the failure was before the acceptance. The acceptor may be discharged by an express declaration of the holder, or by something equivalent to such declaration. But no circumstances of indulgence shewn to the acceptor by the holder, nor any attempt by him to recover of the drawer, will amount to an express declaration of discharge. Neither will any length of time short of the statute of limitation, nor the receipt of part of the money from the drawer or indorser, nor a promise by indorsement on the bill by the drawer to pay the residue, discharge the holder's remedy against the acceptor.

PROTEST. A protest is made for non-acceptance, non-payment, and also for better security. This last is usual, when a merchant, who has accepted a bill, happens to become insolvent, or is publicly reported to have failed in his credit, or absents himself from change before the bill he has accepted has become due, or when the holder has any reason to suppose it will not be paid; in such cases he may cause a notary to demand better security, and on that being refused, make protest for want of it; which protest must, as in other cases, be sent away by the next post, that the remitter or drawer may take the proper means to procure better security.

In making a protest there are three things to be done; the noting, demanding, and drawing up the protest: but the noting is unknown in the law, as distinguished from the protest; it is merely a preliminary step, and has grown into practice only in modern times. The party making the demand, must have authority to receive the money, and in case that be refused, the drawing up of the protest is mere matter of form, the demand being the material part. The noting is a minute made by the officer upon the bill itself, in consequence of the drawee's refusing to accept or pay, as the case may be, consisting of his (the officer's) initials, the month, the day, and the year, with his charges for minuting. The protest itself is a solemn declaration afterwards drawn up by the officer, that the bill has been presented for acceptance or payment, which was refused, and
presented

that the holder intends to recover all damages, which he, or the deliverer of the money to the drawer, may sustain on account of the non-acceptance.

A protest does not raise any debt, but only serves to give formal notice, that the bill is not accepted, or accepted and not paid; and this by the common law was, and is still necessary on every foreign bill, before the drawer can be charged; but it was not required on any inland bill, before the statute of 9 and 10 W. III. c. 17; nor does the want of it since that statute destroy the remedy which the party had before against the drawer, but only deprives him of interest and costs against the drawer, unless there be notice by protest, as that statute prescribes. The protest is usually made by some public notary, and such protest is *prima facie*, good evidence that the bill was not accepted, that it was not paid, and sufficient to put the proof on the other side. The demand of payment of a *foreign* bill must be made by the notary public himself, and not by his clerk; and even in the case of an *inland* bill, it is doubtful, whether the demand, as the foundation of the protest made in consequence of the statute, of W. III. above-mentioned, can be made by the notary's clerk, or by any other person than the notary himself.

NOTICE. A protest on a foreign bill of exchange is absolutely necessary to entitle the party to recover against the drawer, not only interest and costs, but likewise the principal sum; and for this purpose the bill must be presented in a reasonable time; and in case of refusal of acceptance, or in case the drawee cannot be found, it must be protested in reasonable time, and notice of such protest, as also notice of a protest after acceptance and non-payment given to the drawer in a reasonable time; for though the drawer is bound to the party to whom the bill is payable, till payment be actually made; yet it is with this condition and proviso, says Molloy, that protest be made in due time, and a lawful and ingenuous diligence used for obtaining payment of the money. And the reason hereof is, that the drawer might have had effects, or other means of his, upon whom he drew, to reimburse himself the bill, which since, for want of timely notice, he has remitted or lost, and it were unreasonable he should suffer through the holder's neglect. But as to the exact time therein, the law has not determined it, but the same is to be left to a jury, who are to govern themselves according to the customs of merchants in these cases, and the usages of particular countries.

As to inland bills, though a protest was not necessary by the common law, in order to sue the drawer, and is only now necessary by the statute 9 and 10 W. III. c. 17. and 3 and 4

Ann. c. 9. to entitle the party to interest and costs: yet convenient notice must be given by the party, to whom the bill is payable to the drawer, of the drawee's refusal of payment, and if any damages accrue to the drawer for want of such notice, it must be borne by the person to whom the bill is payable. The period of time within which bills are to be presented, are however still unfixed. The only rule that can be applied is, that due diligence must be used. Due diligence is the only thing to be looked at, whether the bill be foreign or inland, whether it be payable at sight, or so many days after, or in any other manner. It is not enough to say in the notice, that the drawee or maker refuses, is insolvent, or has absconded; but it must be added, that the holder does not intend to give him credit. The purpose of giving notice is not merely that the indorser should know that default has been made, for he is chargeable only in a secondary degree; but to render him liable, it must be shewn that the holder looked to him for payment, and gave him notice that he did so.

BANKRUPTS. The information on this subject will be extracted entirely from Mr. Cooke's treatise on the bankrupt laws, a work so copious and able, that it supersedes the necessity of further research.

The word *bankrupt* has been variously derived by different authors; Sir Edward Coke deriving it from *banque* and *route*, which signifies a trace or tract; so that, according to him, it means one whose bank is removed, and but a mark or trace left behind. But Mr. Justice Blackstone derives it from the word *bancus* or *banque*, which signifies the table or counter of a tradesman, and *ruptus*, broken, denoting thereby one whose shop or place of trade is broken and gone; at the same time he takes notice of Sir Edward Coke's derivation, and further observes, that the title of the first English statute concerning this offence, "against such as do make bankrupt," is a literal translation of the *French* idiom, *qui font banque route* *.

The laws of England, cautious of encouraging prodigality and extravagance, allow the benefit of the bankrupt statutes to none but actual traders; but as trade cannot be carried on without mutual credit, the contracting of debts to facilitate commerce, is not only justifiable, but necessary: and if, by accidental calamities, a merchant or trader becomes incapable of discharging his own debts, it is his misfortune, and not his fault. To the misfortune therefore of debtors, the law has given a compassionate remedy, but denied it to their faults; since at the same time that it provides for the security of commerce, by

* This derivation is however very old, being decided by Babelais as fanciful and ridiculous.

enacting that every trader may be declared a bankrupt for the benefit of his creditors as well as himself, it has also to discourage extravagance, declared, that no one shall be capable of being made a bankrupt, but a trader; nor capable of receiving the full benefit of the statutes, but an honest trader. All the acts concerning bankrupts make but one system of law, they are therefore to be taken together, and to be construed favourably for the benefit of creditors, and to suppress fraud; for though a bankrupt was formerly considered merely in the light of a criminal, and therefore a strict construction might be expected, in conformity to the universal practice of deciding upon penal statutes; at present the laws of bankruptcy are considered as laws calculated for the benefit of trade, and founded on principles of humanity, as well as justice. The first statute noticing the crime of bankruptcy, was made against the Lombards, who, after they had made obligations to their creditors, suddenly escaped out of the realm; it was therefore enacted, "that if any merchant of the company acknowledge himself bound in that manner, that then the company shall answer the debt; so that another merchant, who is not of the company, shall not be thereby aggrieved nor impeached." But the first statute made concerning any English bankrupts, was 34 Henry VIII. which has been much altered by 13 Eliz. and other subsequent statutes.

THE COMMISSION. The Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, or Lords Commissioners of the great seal, by the statutes concerning bankrupts, being authorised to issue a commission of bankrupt; when a creditor finds himself under the necessity of obtaining such a commission, he must proceed to strike a *docket*; which is done by making an affidavit of his debt, and executing a bond to the great seal. But this will not prevent the issuing of another commission, on the petition of another creditor, unless the party striking the first docket seals his commission, if to be executed in London, in fourteen days, or in the country, in twenty-eight days. Formerly, a practice of entering caveats in the secretary of bankrupt's office prevailed, but they have fallen into disuse, since lord Hardwicke expressed his disapprobation of them, because by that means, an opportunity was given to persons against whom the commission was to be taken out, to make away with their effects. The commission of bankrupt must be founded on a petition, which, when supported by a proper affidavit of a debt, and the creditor entering into a bond as directed by statute, the chancellor is bound to grant; for the granting a commission is not discretionary, but a matter of right.

ITS EFFECTS. A commission of bankrupt is considered as a statute execution, and when it has issued and the party is declared a bankrupt, his death will not prevent the further execution of the commission. So if there is a joint commission against two partners, though one of them should die, the commission may still proceed; but if one of the joint traders be dead at the time of taking out the commission, it abates, and is absolutely void, because they must be each found bankrupt. And where a joint commission is prosecuted, all the ostensible partners must be included, for a joint commission against two or several partners cannot be sustained. It was formerly the practice, where there were several partners to take out separate commissions against each, as well as a joint commission; but this has been since discountenanced; it being the common course of the court, upon petition, to make an order for the separate creditors, to come in and prove their debts under the joint commission, and that the assignees should keep distinct accounts of the several estates. If a man who has once been a bankrupt has not obtained his certificate, a new commission against him cannot be supported, for all the property he may possess, belongs to his first assignees.

COSTS. By the 5 Geo. II. c. 30. § 25. the petitioning creditor is directed, at his own costs, to prosecute the commission until assignees shall be chosen, which costs are to be ascertained by the commissioners at the meeting for the choice of assignees, and are to be paid by the assignees to the petitioning creditor out of the first money or effects received or collected by them under the commission.

THE DEBT. The petitioning creditor must have a *legal demand* to the amount of 100 *l.*; and if two creditors join in petitioning for a commission, their debts must be 150 *l.*; or if three or more join, they must be creditors for 200 *l.*

WHO MAY BE BANKRUPTS. Every person being a trader, and capable of making binding contracts, is liable to become a bankrupt; as a nobleman, member of the house of commons, clergyman, &c; although against persons having privilege of parliament, there may be some particular powers that commissioners of bankrupt cannot exercise. Infants and married women cannot be bankrupts; as to the latter, however, there are exceptions; for a *feme covert* in London, being a sole trader according to the custom, is liable to the commission of bankrupt, and her separate effects in trade, may be seized and applied to the payment of her own debts contracted in such separate trade. There is also another exception of a more doubtful nature, where a *feme covert* lives apart from her husband,

band, acting as a *feme sole*, he not being liable to her debts. If a woman under these circumstances, not being the wife or daughter of a freeman of London, enters into trade, and contracts debts, it should seem she is liable to a commission of bankrupt. A clergyman, if he trades, may become a bankrupt. The statute of the 21 Hen. VIII. is rather in the nature of a prohibition, and a prohibition will not exempt him from being a bankrupt; for if a man with his eyes open will break the law, that does not make void the contract. A man cannot take advantage of the breach of one law, in order to avoid his being subject to another. A lunatic, while under the influence of that dreadful visitation, cannot commit an act of bankruptcy.

Any merchant or other person using the trade of merchandize by way of bargaining, exchange, rechange, bartry, chevifance, or otherwise, in gross or retail, or seeking his trade, or living by buying or selling, may be bankrupt. Also bankers, brokers, factors, dealers in coals, scriveners, vintners, brickmakers, butchers, bakers, brewers, clothiers, goldsmiths, and dyers. Iron manufactures, who buy rod or bar iron, and cause it to be crooked up into wares, locksmiths, milliners, nailors, plumbers, salesmen, shoemakers, smiths, and tanners. When therefore it is laid down in the books that farmers, inn-keepers, &c. cannot be bankrupts, it must be understood in respect to that particular description, and not as affording a protection, if in any other shape they may come within the bankrupt laws. To enumerate every trade, which is sufficient to make a man a bankrupt, would be too tedious; the cases are decided by principles that have weighed in adjudications, but a chapman, or one that buys or sells any thing, though his dealings do not come under the denomination of any particular trade, may yet become a bankrupt.

In the interpretation of the bankrupt statutes, it has been held, that the buying and selling there meant, is of persons who attempt to gain a livelihood by a credit gained on an uncertain capital stock; but no handicraft occupation (where nothing is bought or sold, and therefore an extensive credit for the stock in trade, is not necessary to be had) will make a man a regular bankrupt. But when persons purchase commodities for the purpose of manufacturing, and thereby making them more valuable, as shoemakers, smiths, and the like, here, though part of the gain is by bodily labour, and not by buying and selling, yet they are within the statutes of bankrupt; for the labour is only in melioration of the commodity, and rendering it more fit for sale. And upon this principle, a butcher has been held a trader within the statutes; and this, though the court expressed themselves
very

very sensible of the inconvenience of extending the bankrupt laws to artificers, whose living is undoubtedly gotten by mechanical labour, with a mixture of buying and selling. It has been decided, that a *ship carpenter* might be a bankrupt, although it has been questioned by other judges, whether a *carpenter* could; but according to the principles established in the cases before cited, the true distinction seems to be between a mere working carpenter, and one who buys timber and materials for carrying on his trade. A brick-maker it was said, might be a bankrupt, because the earth is manufactured and turned into quite another thing; but this doctrine has been much disputed, and is not finally settled. A person who has dealt merely in running and smuggling of goods, though it is an offence, and contrary to an act of parliament, is still a trader within the meaning of the bankrupt statutes, and liable to a commission. Lord Hardwicke was inclined to think a pawnbroker within the several statutes concerning bankrupts. Drawing and redrawing bills of exchange may make a man liable to be a bankrupt.

One single act of buying and selling will not make a man a bankrupt, but a repeated practice and endeavour to gain profit by it, is required. It was formerly held that to bring a party within the bankrupt laws, there must be such a buying and selling in gross or in retail, as was the party's principal means of living, but if the buying and selling was in proportion to any other way he had of living, then he might become a bankrupt. But in later cases, it is established, that the extent of the trading is not material, but that the true criterion is, whether the party means to sell (with a view to profit) to any person who applies for the commodity in which he professes to deal. The intention of the party to sell generally to all customers, or as a favour to particular persons, is a question of fact to be left to the jury.

Buying and selling under particular restraint, and for particular purposes, is not a trading within the bankrupt statutes; therefore a farmer who buys cattle for his farm, and afterwards sells them again, cannot be a bankrupt. Nor a school-master who buys books to sell to his scholars; nor the owner of a mine who buys candles to sell to his workmen. No farmer, grazier, or drover, can as such be made bankrupt, nor the receiver-general of the taxes. A contract to victual the fleet, is no more than to table with a private man, which will never make a trader. The king's butler or steward, or any other officer is not a trader. The king's commissioners of excise, school-keepers, and sutlers of armies, butlers and stewards of inns of courts, and farmers of the customs, are not traders. An inn-keeper is not a trader within the
bankrupt

bankrupt statutes, for he deals under a restraint and particular limitation; he cannot refuse to lodge travellers, and he is under the power of the justices of the peace in the place where his inn is situate; he does not deal upon contract as other traders do, for a judge of assize may set a price upon his goods, and if they should set a price themselves, if it is unreasonable they may be indicted for extortion. What they buy is to a particular intent, for it is to spend in their houses, and though they get their living by it, *ad plurimum*; for the greatest part of their gains arises by lodgings, attendance, dressing of meats, and other necessities for their guests. A victualler is to be considered in the same light as an inn-keeper in respect to the bankrupt laws; therefore a victualler who sells liquor in his house, and only sells them out of the house in small retail quantities, as every publican does, is not liable to a commission of bankrupt. The making of alum is not a trade within the bankrupt statutes; the buying and selling land, or an interest in land, is not a buying and selling within the statutes, which must be restrained to personal things. Buying and selling bank stock, or other government securities, will not make a man a bankrupt, they not being goods, wares, or merchandize, within the intent of the statute, by which a profit may be fairly made. A man who lives by buying only, or selling only, cannot be a bankrupt. Drawing and re-drawing bills of exchange for a particular purpose, is not a trading within the meaning of the bankrupt laws. A clerk in the customs, receiving debentures and discounting bills, is not a trader by so doing. The having a share in a ship, if the owner does not freight it, will not make a man a bankrupt, any more than having a share in a hackney coach, or letting horses to hire. No member of the bank of England; of the East India; or English linen company; nor any person circulating exchequer bills; nor any adventure in the royal fishing trade, or Guinea company; nor any member of the London Assurance or Royal Exchange, or South Sea companies, shall be deemed bankrupt on account of his stock in the said companies.

Any person trading to England, whether native, denizen, or alien, though never resident as a trader in England, may be a bankrupt, if he occasionally comes to this country and commits an act of bankruptcy.

ACTS OF BANKRUPTCY. Many of the acts of bankruptcy described in the statutes are in themselves equivocal, and capable of being explained by circumstances; for to bring them within the purview and meaning of the statutes, it is absolutely necessary they should be done to defraud and delay creditors from

from recovering their just debts. On each act therefore some general observations will be made.

Departing the realm. will not be an act of bankruptcy, unless done with a view of defrauding or delaying creditors; but if it appear that they are in fact delayed by such absence, it has been held that it will be the same as if the original departure were fraudulent. A trader going abroad, to avoid performing a duty, will not therefore be a bankrupt, as if it be to avoid an arrest upon an *excommunicato capiendo*, or the service of process to enforce a decree in chancery, unless it be a decree for the payment of money; but if creditors, by such absence are delayed and defrauded, then it becomes an act of bankruptcy.

Beginning to keep house, or otherwise to absent himself. Denial to a creditor is not itself an act of bankruptcy, but is *prima facie* evidence of keeping house. But as the statute requires it to be with an intent to delay or defraud creditors, the mere denial is therefore capable of being explained by circumstances, such as sickness, company, business, or even the lateness of the hour. Neither will an order by the debtor to his servant to deny him to creditors be sufficient without an actual denial. For where a tradesman gave orders to his servant to deny him to creditors on the 26th of May, but was not actually denied till the 28th, the court held that the actual denial, and not the order to deny, constituted the act of bankruptcy. Any keeping house, or on board ship, for the purpose of delaying a creditor, even for a very short time, will be an act of bankruptcy. A general denial will not be sufficient, but it must be a denial to a creditor who has debt at that time due; for if he is only a creditor by a note payable at a future day, a denial to him will be no act of bankruptcy; the statute requires a keeping house to defeat or delay creditors of their debts, which cannot be where the creditor has no debt due to demand. It has been held that a denial to a person coming on behalf of a creditor to demand a debt, will not be within the statutes. A trader admitting a creditor who called for money, but leaving him under a false pretence of procuring it, is thereby guilty of an act of bankruptcy. It frequently happens that traders in declining circumstances call their creditors together to inspect their affairs, and determine whether a commission shall issue against them or not, and if thought advisable, it is usual for the trader to deny himself to a creditor for the purpose of making an act of bankruptcy. However, it was formerly doubtful how far such concerted denial would be an act of bankruptcy to affect the interest of third persons. The statute requires a denial with an intent, to
delay

delay or defraud the creditor, but it is clear that a denial by agreement cannot be said to be with either of those intents; and lord Mansfield, in *Hooper v. Smith* observed, he much doubted how far such an act of bankruptcy, committed by consent and agreement is valid, with respect to a third person, not privy to such agreement, certainly, said his lordship, the bankrupt himself, and all those who came in under the commission, are concluded to say any thing against it. But the relation of a commission of bankrupt to the time of committing the act, though useful to prevent frauds, is sufficiently hard already upon private persons, and ought not to be extended further. An act of bankruptcy, in the eye of the law, is considered as a crime; but where is the crime of denying oneself to another, by previous consent and agreement? and this point has been variously determined at *Nisi Prius*; for Mr. Justice Foster held, that the bankrupt's being denied to the plaintiff's clerk (who was sent to demand money in consequence of an agreement made at a meeting of the creditors two hours before, at which the bankrupt and the plaintiff both were) was sufficient. But Lee, Chief Justice, ruled, that a denial by agreement was no act of bankruptcy, and so the law seems to be now settled; accordingly, in an action of *trover* for goods taken in execution, the question was as to the time of committing the act of bankruptcy. Buller Justice, who tried the cause, held, that if a man leagues with some of his creditors, and keeps house with intent to commit an act of bankruptcy, and is accordingly denied to one of such creditors, it is fraudulent and not a good act of bankruptcy. But if the creditor calling be not a party to, nor acquainted with such agreement, it shall not operate to his disadvantage, and the denial shall be good evidence of an act of bankruptcy.

Departing from his dwelling-house, may become an act of bankruptcy or not, according to the motive by which the party is impelled; if it be done with a view of defrauding his creditors, or even delaying them, and his absence but for a single day, it will be an act of bankruptcy, and his very absenting himself is sufficient *prima facie* evidence of an intention to defraud or delay his creditors; but it must be a voluntary absenting, and not by means of an arrest. And as keeping house to avoid performing a duty will not be an act of bankruptcy, so neither will the departing from his dwelling-house on the like occasion; for it is the absenting to avoid the payment of money which marks the insolvency, and therefore becomes an act of bankruptcy; consequently absconding to avoid an attachment upon an award for not delivering of goods, is not an act of bankruptcy; but, on the other hand, abscond-
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ing to avoid an attachment for non-payment of money in pursuance of an award is within the statute.

Suffering himself to be outlawed. An outlawry in Ireland does not make one a bankrupt, but in the county palatine of Durham it does. However, an outlawry does not appear to be an act of bankruptcy, unless it be suffered with an intent to defraud creditors.

Yielding himself to prison, is to be intended a voluntary yielding for debt; and if a person capable of paying will, notwithstanding, from fraudulent motives, voluntarily go to prison, it is an act of bankruptcy.

Willingly or fraudulently procuring his goods to be attached or sequestered, which is a plain and direct endeavour to disappoint the creditors of their security. But an attachment out of a court for default or laches is not an act of bankruptcy; nor if a man has a rectory impropriate, and the tithes are sequestered for not repairing the chancel, will he thereby become a bankrupt. The attachment here meant, and which the legislature had in view, is that sort of attachment, by which suits are commenced, as in London and other towns, where that species of process is used; therefore a fraudulent judgment and execution sued thereupon, was held not to be procuring goods to be attached within the words of this act.

Making any fraudulent grant or conveyance of his lands and tenements, goods or chattels, to the intent, or whereby, his creditors shall or may be defeated or delayed in the recovery of their just and true debts. A fraudulent grant, to come within the meaning of this statute, must be by deed; therefore a fraudulent sale of goods, not by deed, is no act of bankruptcy in itself; but being a scheme concerted at the eve of a bankruptcy, to cheat innocent persons, in order to secure particular creditors, is such a fraud as shall render the sale void. A trader, before he becomes a bankrupt, may prefer one creditor, and may pay him his debt, or may make him a mortgage, with possession delivered, or may assign parts of his effects; but a preference of one creditor to the rest, by conveying by deed all his effects to him, is a fraud upon the whole bankrupt law; and an act of bankruptcy. An assignment by deed of part of a trader's effects will be good, if made *bonâ fide*, and possession delivered; and indeed the not delivering possession being only evidence of fraud, may be explained by circumstances. But an assignment by deed of only part of a trader's effects to a fair creditor, will, notwithstanding, if done in contemplation of bankruptcy, itself become the very act.

Procuring any protection, except such as shall be lawfully protected, by privilege of parliament. If any one be protected as the
king's

king's servant, it does not make him bankrupt. By the 7 Ann. c. 12. declaring the privilege of embassadors and their train, it is enacted, That no merchant, or other trader whatsoever within the description of any of the statutes against bankrupts, shall have any benefit by that act.

Being arrested for debt, shall, after such arrest, lie in prison two months, or more, upon that or any other arrest or detention in prison for debt. The arrest must be lawful, and therefore an arrest by an executor, before probate is not within the act. The statute does not make the mere being arrested an act of bankruptcy. The most substantial trader is liable to be arrested; but the presumption of insolvency arises from his lying in prison two months without being able to get bail; nor will this presumption be obviated by a mere formal bail put in for the purpose of changing from one custody to another.

Being arrested for 100l. or more, of just debts, shall escape out of prison. The act clearly intends such an escape as shews he means to run away, and thereby to defeat his creditors; it must be an escape against the will of the sheriff, for a man shall not be made a criminal where he has not the least criminal intention to disobey any law.

If any bankrupt, after issuing any commission against him, pay to the person who sued out the same, or otherwise give and deliver to such person, goods, or any other satisfaction or security for his debt, whereby such person shall privately have and receive more in the pound in respect of his debt than the other creditors, such payment of money shall be an act of bankruptcy.

The legislature having by positive laws declared what acts shall be considered as criterions of insolvency or fraud whereon to ground a commission; none other can be admitted by inference or analogy.

An act of bankruptcy, if once plainly committed, can never be purged, even though the party continues to carry on a great trade; but if the act was doubtful, then circumstances may explain the intent of the first act, and shew it not to have been done with a view to defraud creditors. But if after a plain act of bankruptcy, a man pays off, and compounds with all his creditors, he becomes a new man.

DECLARING THE PARTY BANKRUPT. The commission being sealed, three of the commissioners are to be summoned to attend a private meeting for the purpose of *opening the commission*, who, after having qualified themselves by taking the oath directed by the statute, proceed to receive proof of the petitioning creditor's debt, (who must attend in person), the trading, and the act of bankruptcy, each of which must be made out to
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their satisfaction, previous to their declaring the party bankrupt.

The commissioners cannot break open any but the bankrupt's house to search for his goods, &c. If they have reason to apprehend the bankrupt is making away with and concealing his effects, or preparing to depart the kingdom, to avoid surrendering, they may summon him to appear before them to be examined immediately. The wife of a bankrupt cannot be examined against her husband touching his bankruptcy, for she, by the common law, cannot be a witness for or against her husband; and though the statute 21 Jas. I. authorizes the commissioners to examine the wife touching any concealments of the goods, effects, or estate of the bankrupt, yet neither does that or any other statute extend to examine the bankrupt's wife touching his bankruptcy, or whether he had committed any act of bankruptcy, and how or when he became a bankrupt. The commissioners have no power or authority to commit one suspected to detain effects of the bankrupt, for not attending to be examined, on their first summons. They may issue process of contempt, not to punish, but to compel an answer; they have no power of committing for punishment, and they are not judges, and therefore the cause of their commitment is reverfable. They are, however, a court of justice sufficient for the purpose of having their witnesses protected.

PROTECTION FROM ARREST. The 5 Geo. II. c. 30. allows a bankrupt forty-two days to surrender in, but the sooner he surrenders the better for the creditors. Therefore, to induce bankrupts to surrender, a privilege is held out to them by the same statute, that in coming to surrender they shall be free from arrest; *and also after actual surrender for the space of forty-two days, or such further time as shall be allowed for finishing their last examination.* But this is a particular privilege to enable them to surrender, and till actual surrender confined to the act of their going *with that view*, not a general privilege during the whole time which the act of parliament allows them to surrender in. Nevertheless, if a bankrupt be abroad, and upon his return with an intention to surrender, is arrested on his landing before he can conveniently make his surrender, the privilege shall extend to him; but it must appear that he was actually going to surrender. If the commissioners adjourn the last examination, the bankrupt's protection continues. A bankrupt may be taken and surrendered by his bail within the time of privilege.

PROOF OF DEBTS. Debts may be proved at any of the public meetings appointed by the commissioners; the usual proof is the

the oath of the creditor, which, if not objected to by the bankrupt himself, or any of the creditors, is generally deemed sufficient; but if any well founded objection is raised, the demand must be farther substantiated by evidence. For though the creditor should make a positive oath of the debt, the commissioners, if they conceive themselves to have just grounds to doubt its fairness, ought to admit it only as a claim, for the debt must be made out to the satisfaction of the commissioners, otherwise it may be rejected. If a creditor swears to a false debt he may be convicted of perjury, and the assignees, in an action, may recover from such creditor double the sum sworn to.

In cases where the creditor lives in the country, or is abroad, the statute directs that his affidavit of the debt shall be received by the commissioners; but where circumstances make the obtaining an affidavit impossible, from his not being present to settle the accounts, or other good reason, proof may be admitted from other quarters.

The aim of the legislature in all the statutes concerning bankrupts being that the creditors should have an equal proportion of the bankrupt's effects, creditors of every description must come in equally; nor will the nature of their demands make any difference, unless they have obtained actual execution, or taken some pledge or security before an act of bankruptcy committed. For when a creditor comes to prove his debt, he is obliged to swear, whether he has a security or not; and if he has, and insists upon proving, he must deliver it up for the benefit of his creditors, unless it be a joint security from the bankrupt and another person; in which case he may come in for his whole debt under the commission, without being compelled to deliver up the joint security, being intitled to recover what he can from the co-security, and take his dividend, upon the whole of his demand, upon the bankrupt's estate, provided he does not receive more than twenty shillings in the pound, in the whole. When therefore a creditor has a mortgage or other pledge that he apprehends is not equal to the payment of his debt, he must apply to the commissioners to have the pledge sold; and to be admitted a creditor for the residue; and the commissioners may direct the sale to be made before them, or by public auction; in which case the sales have been decided to be liable to the auction duty. The commissioners can only direct the sale of property mortgaged or pledged, in cases where the creditor applies to them for such relief, for they have no authority to dispose of the creditor's security against his consent.

Every security that a creditor has for his debt must be produced at the time of his proving, when the commissioners will mark them as having been exhibited.

If a creditor conceives himself aggrieved by the determination of the commissioners, upon his application to prove, he must apply by petition to the lord chancellor to correct the judgment of the commissioners. So if the commissioners have improperly admitted proof of a debt, redress must be sought by petition and not by bill.

CREDITORS ELECTION. The privilege of creditors to come in and prove their debts, and bankrupts to be discharged therefrom, is said to be co-extensive and commensurate. However, the court will not absolutely stop him from bringing an action, but put him to his election; and should he elect to proceed at law, he will still be allowed to prove his debt, for the purpose of assenting to, or dissenting from, the certificate; which permission is absolutely requisite to make his remedy at law of any avail; for should the bankrupt procure his certificate, he will be hereby discharged from that action, as well as from all debts contracted before the bankruptcy. Where a creditor has proceeded at law before he applies to prove his debt under the commission, he ought not to be permitted to prove without relinquishing his proceedings at law, unless by order from the great seal, for the purpose of signifying his assent to, or dissent from, the certificate. The being chosen *assignee* will not prevent the creditor from suing the bankrupt at law, if he has not proved his debt, for in that case, he can only be considered as a creditor at large; and even if he has proved his debt, and chosen himself assignee, he *may still elect to proceed at law*, and be discharged as a creditor under the commission. If a creditor at the time the commission issues has the bankrupt in execution, he may prove his debt under the commission, and elect to discharge the bankrupt; but if after the commission has issued a creditor proceeds at law against the bankrupt, and takes his body in execution, it is a conclusive election, and he will not be intitled to prove so as to receive a dividend, although he should afterwards discharge the bankrupt out of custody.

EXECUTORS. If an executor becomes a bankrupt, as he acts in *auter droit*, his bankruptcy does not take away the legal right of executorship, nor does the commissioners' assignment affect the testator's assets, except as to such beneficial interest as the bankrupt may himself be intitled to. But though a bankrupt executor may strictly be the proper hand to receive the assets, yet if his assignees have received any of the property, a court of equity will, for the benefit of creditors and legatees, either appoint a receiver, or direct the bankrupt himself to be admitted a creditor for what he shall be indebted to the estate, and order the dividends upon such proof to be paid into the Bank, subject to the demands which may be raised against the testator's estate, or under his will. As bankruptcy does not affect the

right of an executor, in strictness he is himself the proper person to be admitted to prove against his own estate; which is not incongruous, as he does it in *auter droit*, and the danger of embezzlement may be prevented by ordering the dividend to be paid into the court.

ANNUITIES. The general rule as to common annuities is, that where one is intitled to an annuity from another, which is not a rent charge on land or on a specific part of the grantor's estate, but personal, to be paid by him who afterwards becomes bankrupt, it is only a general demand on him and his estate, and there is nothing a debt on his estate but the arrears of the annuity at the time of the bankruptcy, unless the penalty of the annuity bond has become forfeited; for otherwise the payments accruing afterwards become a debt after the bankruptcy, and cannot be proved. But where there has been a forfeiture prior to the bankruptcy, in order to prevent the injustice of admitting the creditor only to prove the arrears accrued due before the bankruptcy, and the great inconvenience that would ensue if the annuity should be received from time to time as an accruing debt on the estate, by which means the division of the estate would be perpetual, and there could be no final dividend during the annuitant's life, the court puts it in another shape, of setting a value on the annuity, because it was only a general personal demand. And in setting this value, consideration must be had of the time the annuitant has enjoyed it. But if the annuity is secured by a deed of covenant, and a bond is likewise given as an additional security, and forfeited for non-payment before the bankruptcy, the creditor is not obliged to prove under the commission, but may proceed at law for a breach of covenant, notwithstanding the bankrupt has obtained his certificate.

APPRENTICES AND CHILDREN. In case of an apprentice where the master becomes bankrupt, commissioners recommend it to the creditors to allow him a gross sum out of the estate, for the purpose of binding him to another master, as it would be hard to make him come in as a creditor under the commission; but this, though it is equitable and just, must be considered as an indulgence, and not a right, for the court can only order him to be admitted as a creditor. A child living with the father, and earning money for itself, may, if the father receives the money, be admitted under the commission against him.

BONDS. A bond, although it is not assignable at law, may be proved by the assignee under the commission, but the assignor must join in the deposition that he has not received the debt, or any part thereof, or any security or satisfaction for the same. All bonds for the payment of money are within the statute

7 Geo. I. c. 31. which enables creditors upon securities, payable in future on a day certain, to prove their debts and receive a dividend, “deducting thereout a rebate of interest, and discounting such securities payable at future times after the rate of *five per cent. per annum* for what shall be so received, to be computed from the actual payment thereof, to the time such debt, duty, or sum of money, should or would have become due and payable.”

BILLS OF EXCHANGE, AND NOTES. Bills of exchange and promissory notes by the statute of 7 Geo. I. c. 31. may be proved under the commission, although they are not due at the time of issuing the commission. The holder of a bill of exchange is intitled to prove his debt under a commission against the drawer, acceptor, and indorser, and to receive a dividend from each upon his whole debt, provided he does not in the whole receive more than twenty shillings in the pound. But there is a distinction in this case, where the creditor applies to prove his debt after having received a part, and where he applies to prove previous to having received any payment or composition; for if the creditor at the time of proving has received any part of the bill from any of the persons liable to pay it, he is intitled to a dividend upon the whole, provided it does not exceed twenty shillings in the pound upon such part as remains due. When accommodation transactions have taken place between persons who both become bankrupts, bills accepted by each party being outstanding, and the assignees of one firm claim to prove against the estate of the other, the bills still remaining unsatisfied, and capable of proof against both estates, it should seem that an account of the dealings between the parties must be taken, and that the unsatisfied bills of each party must be excluded from the account; and the balance ascertained, upon the general dealings between them, considering bills duly honoured as so much cash. When the acceptor of a bill becomes a bankrupt, the holder may prove the amount of the bill under his commission, and also maintain an action against the other parties; but if the acceptor of a bill, or maker of a promissory note, become insolvent, or offer to compound their debts, the holder of a bill or note acceding to such composition, has been determined thereby to discharge the other parties, unless they had previously assented to the holder's executing the composition deed. Commissioners of bankrupts do not allow creditors to prove interest upon notes or bills, unless it is expressed upon the body of them. But the creditor may prove the full sum for which the notes were given, notwithstanding he received *5l. per cent.* discount.

RENT. A landlord having a legal right to distrain goods while they remain on the premises, the issuing a commission of bankrupt against the tenant, and the messenger's possession of the goods of the tenant, will not hinder him from distraining for rent, for it is not such a *custodia legis* as an execution; and even there the law allows the landlord a year's rent; and the assignment by the commissioners of the bankrupt's estate and effects is only changing the property of the goods, and while upon the premises they remain liable to be distrained. If a trader at the time of his bankruptcy is possessed of a term, it passes by the assignment; but if the assignees do not consider it as valuable, and do not chuse to take possession, they will not be liable to the rent.

INTEREST. The commissioners, after a man becomes a bankrupt, compute interest upon debts no lower than the date of the commission, because it is a dead fund, and in such a shipwreck, if there is a salvage of part to each person, it is as much as can be expected. A specialty creditor cannot have interest beyond the penalty contained in his security, but a creditor by note carrying interest may receive the full amount.

COSTS. On actions whether of debt, *assumpsit*, or for a tort, the judgment when signed, relates to the verdict; and the costs *de incremento* when taxed are annexed to those assessed by the jury, and become consolidated with them by a fair and equitable relation of law, and therefore they may be proved as a debt if the verdict is prior to the bankruptcy.

DEBTS VOID BY STATUTE. A debt made void by statute ought not to be permitted to be proved, as a debt on an usurious contract; and though the rule of the court of chancery is, upon a bill to be relieved against demands of usurious interest, not to make void the whole debt, but to make the party pay what is really due; in a commission of bankrupt the assignees have a right to insist that the whole is void, as an usurious contract. And unless the assignees and creditors submit to pay what is really due, the lord chancellor has not power to order it.

PAYABLE IN FUTURE. Before the statute 7 Geo. I. c. 31. debts which had not become due at the time of the bankruptcy could not have been proved; but by that statute the legislature put debts payable in future upon a day certain on the same footing as debts actually due; however, as the preamble to that statute recites only "securities for the sale of goods and merchandize," it became a question whether securities given on any other account were within the act, the words of which are, "all and every person or persons who have or shall give

“ credit on such securities as aforesaid, to any person who shall
 “ become bankrupt upon a good and valuable consideration,
 “ *bona fide* for any sum or sums of money, or other matter or
 “ thing.” And it was held that it extends to all sorts of bonds
 for the payment of money, and that the words *such security* do
 not mean security for such a sort of debt, but security by bonds,
 bills, notes, &c. For there is a legislative construction of this
 very act in the 5th Geo. II. c. 30. which, without conceiving
 a doubt, takes it for granted that the statute is not merely
 confined to securities for goods sold and delivered in the course
 of trade, but that it extends generally to all personal securities
 for a valuable consideration, where the time of payment is cer-
 tain, though postponed to a future day.

CONTINGENT DEBTS. Contingent debts are not permitted to
 be proved under a commission of bankrupt, unless the contin-
 gency took effect before an act of bankruptcy committed;
 because the debt ought to be due and payable before the bank-
 ruptcy. Contingent debts are therefore left unprovided for,
 except bottomry and *respondentia* bonds, and policies of insu-
 rance, the holders of which are relieved by the 19 Geo. II. c. 32.
 which admits them to make a claim, and prove when the con-
 tingency takes effect. Contingent debts are said not to be
 included in the statute 7 Geo. I.; because, it being uncertain
 whether they shall ever become due or not, it is impossible to
 make such abatement of 5 *l. per cent.* as the act directs, there-
 fore they cannot be within it. In collateral undertakings, if the
 party engaging to secure the debt himself becomes bankrupt
 before that debt is payable to the principal, the creditor cannot
 prove under his commission. Where a man becomes bail for
 another, it is considered as a contingent debt. And if the
 bail commit an act of bankruptcy before the judgment, it can-
 not be proved under the commission. The hardship of not
 admitting a security to prove a debt which he pays subsequent to
 the commission is in some measure relieved when the original
 creditor has made his proof before he calls upon the surety
 for payment, because the surety is held to have equitable right
 to stand in the place of the original creditor, and receive divi-
 dends upon his proof.

JOINT DEBTS. Joint creditors are entitled to a distribution
 of the joint or partnership estate, without the separate creditors
 being permitted to participate with them; but notwithstanding
 separate creditors are not entitled to share the dividend of the
 joint property, until the joint creditors have received twenty
 shillings in the pound, yet they are upon petition let in to
 prove their respective separate debts under the joint commission,
paying contribution to the charge of it; and as the joint or part-
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nership estate is in the first place to be applied to pay the joint or partnership debts, so in like manner the separate estate shall be in the first place applied to pay all the separate debts. This is settled as a rule of convenience, and it is resolved, that if there be a surplus of the joint estate, besides what will pay the joint creditors, the same shall be allotted in due proportion to the separate estate of each partner, and applied to pay the separate creditors. And if there be on the other hand a surplus of the separate estate, beyond what will satisfy the separate creditors, it shall go to supply any deficiency that may remain as to the joint creditors. This mode of adjusting the rights of each class of creditors, where a joint commission is taken out, seems at one time to have been extended by the court into a rule, to direct the proof of debts under a separate commission, by virtue of which, the separate estate only can be assigned, and therefore it was held, that joint creditors could not prove under such a commission, except for the purpose of assenting to, or dissenting from, the bankrupt's certificate.

CLAIMING A DEBT. In case of debts uncertain in point of liquidation, as between two merchants in ballancing accounts, the matter rests upon a claim, to ascertain the sum that was due at the time of the bankruptcy. So where a creditor cannot ascertain his debt with sufficient certainty to enable him to swear to it, or is not able in other respects satisfactorily to substantiate it; or where the agent of a creditor cannot produce his authority, and in many other cases where there appears a probable foundation of a demand, though not sufficiently made out, it is usual for the commissioners to suffer *a claim to be entered*, but that will not entitle the party to a dividend, which he cannot receive without completely proving his debt. If a claim is not substantiated in reasonable time, the commissioners may strike it out, and they generally do so before a dividend is declared, unless sufficient reason is offered to them for prolonging the time; but the creditor is notwithstanding afterwards at liberty to prove his debt and receive his share upon any future dividends. However, in such cases where there has not been gross neglect, the lord chancellor will make an order that such creditor shall be paid his proportion of the first dividend out of the money in the assignees' hands, upon condition that it does not break in upon any former dividend.

ASSIGNEES. The statute 5 Geo. II. c. 30. authorizes commissioners, immediately upon declaring the party a bankrupt, to appoint an assignee, and to make a *provisional assignment* to him, but does not oblige them to do so; and indeed this practice has not of late years been much used, as it creates expence without answering any good end, except where the bankrupt

is indebted to the crown, and an extent is apprehended. When such appointment is thought necessary, the commissioners may, at their discretion, assign the whole or part of the bankrupt's effects; for the words of the statute are in the disjunctive, *immediately to appoint one or more assignee or assignees of the estate or effects, or any part thereof*. The commissioners, immediately after declaring the party bankrupt, are to appoint a time and place for the choice of assignees (which is always the second meeting) to take care of the bankrupt's estate and effects. It is not necessary that all the creditors should have an opportunity of voting in the choice of assignees. The statute having directed that the choice of assignees shall be by the major part in *value* of the creditors, one creditor, if his debt be sufficiently large, may choose himself assignee.

THEIR TRUST. Assignees are in the nature of trustees, and where they employ an agent to receive or pay money, and he abuses this confidence, an assignee cannot be distinguished from any other trustee, who, if his agent deceive him, must answer over to the *cestui que trusts*. The negligence of one assignee shall not hurt another joint assignee, where he is not at all privy to any private and personal agreement entered into by his brother assignee. Assignees have not a general power to prosecute suits in equity, or submit matters to arbitration; but they must have a meeting of creditors, upon notice given for that purpose in the *London Gazette*, to *consider of each particular suit, or each particular case for arbitration*, before they can proceed in them. If the majority of creditors are against bringing a bill, the assignees cannot do it, but it is said that any creditor may at the peril of costs. Though the acts of parliament relating to bankrupts only direct the assignees to advertise a meeting of creditors in relation to commencing suits, and for particular purposes, yet the assignees are very much to be commended for advertising meetings upon any other extraordinary occasion that concerns the creditors, because where they are numerous, there is no other convenient method of collecting the whole body together. It is the duty of assignees to make a dividend as early as possible after the time given by the statute for creditors to come in and prove their debts. And if they neglect making a dividend, and keep the money in their own hands, they will be liable to interest for it.

REMOVAL. If assignees misbehave in the trust reposed in them, they may be removed by petition to the lord chancellor on the behalf of a creditor. So if an assignee himself becomes bankrupt, that will be a sufficient ground for his removal; or if the commissioners act improperly at the choice of assignees. When an assignee is removed he must join with the old assignee and the commissioners in making an assignment to the
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new assignee. And where an assignee is removed on account of his own bankruptcy, lord Hardwicke was of opinion that he and his assignees must join with the commissioners in executing an assignment to the new assignees. But where the assignee has absconded, or from other causes he could not execute the assignment to the new assignee, the lord chancellor has, under the authority of the statute, directed the first assignment from the commissioners to the new assignee.

LAST EXAMINATION. The 5 Geo. II. c. 30. requires the bankrupt to surrender at the last meeting appointed by the commissioners; or, in case the time for surrendering is enlarged, upon petition to the person holding the great seal, then that he should surrender at the time appointed; and makes the neglect to surrender felony without benefit of clergy. But although the bankrupt is not bound to surrender until the last meeting, the commissioners have authority in the intermediate time to summon and examine him touching his estate and effects. And they have also power to examine the bankrupt, as to a further disclosure of his estate and effects, after he has passed what is usually called his last examination. The commissioners may examine the bankrupt, to all matters that are requisite to a full disclosure of his estate and effects, and the manner he has disposed of them, notwithstanding such examination should subject him to penalties, as in the case of smuggling or gaming, for that is no reason why the commission should not proceed; and if the bankrupt has any objection to the question, he must demur to the interrogatories, and the lord chancellor will judge of the question upon a petition; or if the bankrupt refuse to answer any question, and the commissioners commit him, and the delinquent brings an *habeas corpus*, the question must be set forth particularly in the return to the *habeas corpus*, that the judges may decide whether it was a lawful question or not. An agreement by the friends of the bankrupt to pay a sum of money, in consideration that the creditors would not examine him as to particular points, is void. If a bankrupt in his answers to his examination will swear fully and roundly, it has been said that the commissioners cannot commit, although they may disbelieve him; for it is one thing, whether the answer be true, and another, whether it be sufficient: but this doctrine has since been over-ruled. It is not every question that requires a positive and absolute answer; for where the nature of the case seems to admit a reasonable probability of forgetfulness or inattention, the bankrupt may answer according to his recollection or belief.

DUTY AFTERWARD. It is the duty of every bankrupt, to attend the commissioners at all times, till his affairs are finished, or at least be amenable to their call. It is also his duty to
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assist his assignees in discovering and getting in his effects; and a bankrupt who quits the kingdom puts it out of his own power to conform to the bankrupt laws. But notwithstanding it is the duty of the bankrupt to attend the commissioners at all times till his affairs are finished, and to assist his assignees, yet there seems some doubt, whether any coercive power is extended by the 5 Geo. II. c. 30. to compel him to a performance of his duty, after the forty-two days, or the enlarged time fixed for his surrender, are elapsed.

MAINTENANCE. The bankrupt has no right to be maintained out of his effects during his examination.

CERTIFICATE. Four fifths in number and value of the creditors of the bankrupt for not less than 20*l.* respectively, and who shall have duly proved their debts under the commission, or some other person by them duly authorized, shall sign the certificate. An executor may sign a bankrupt's certificate; but a person who has a debt in his own right, and another debt as executor, cannot sign a certificate in two distinct rights, for both are to be considered as his own particular debt. When the commissioners have signed the certificate, notice must be given in the *London Gazette*, that the same will be allowed by the lord chancellor, unless cause is shewn to the contrary, on or before a particular day, which is always twenty-one days from the notice in the Gazette. If a petition is presented against the certificate on or before the day appointed for the allowance, it is immediately stayed, and the petition set down, to come on in the usual course. The petition must be served on the bankrupt, that he may have an opportunity of answering the allegations; and, if an order is made to stay the certificate, such order must be drawn up within three months, or the certificate will be allowed. The certificate must be opposed by a creditor; but although a creditor of a bankrupt under 20*l.* is excluded from assenting to, or dissenting from the certificate, &c. yet, as he is affected by the consequence of allowing it, he has a right to petition, and shew any fraud, as reason against allowing it.

The certificate will be of no avail, if it can be proved that the bankrupt, upon marriage of his child, advanced above the value of 100*l.* unless he had at the time sufficient to pay his full debts; or if the bankrupt lost in one day 5*l.* or in the whole 100*l.* within twelve-months preceding his becoming bankrupt, in playing at or with cards, dice, tables, tennis, bowls, horse-races, dog-matches, or foot-races, or other pastimes, or games; or by bearing a part in the stakes, wagers, or adventures; or by betting on the sides or hands of such as do play, act, ride, or run; or that within one year before he became bankrupt he should have lost the sum of 100*l.*

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by one or more contracts for the purchase, sale, refusal, or delivery of any stock of any company or corporation, or any part or shares of any government or public funds or securities, where such contract was not to be performed within one week from the time of making such contract; or where the stock or other thing so bought, or sold, was not actually transferred or delivered in pursuance of such contract. But insuring in the lottery is not within the statute. If one or even all a bankrupt's creditors are induced by money to sign his certificate, though he does not know of it at the time of signing, nor even when he makes the necessary affidavit, in order to obtain the allowance of the certificate by the chancellor, yet if he knows it before the actual allowance, the certificate is void; for though a third person shall not be punished for the fraud of another, he shall not avail himself of it. There is no way of compelling the creditors to sign the certificate; they are all left at liberty, and ought to be upon a par; and if some are induced to sign it because others have, who they suppose to be on a par with themselves, but who in fact have been paid, this is a gross fraud upon them. But if money is given by an enemy of the bankrupt's in order to deprive the bankrupt of the effect of his certificate, where there are creditors sufficient in number and value, without those who are paid to sign it, the bankrupt shall not be hurt by this fraud upon him; but if the necessary number and value is completed by persons who are induced to sign by money, that, though without the privity of the bankrupt, is a fraud on the creditors at large, and shall not have the intended effect. So if a creditor is induced by money to withdraw a petition presented against the certificate, or after such a petition sells his debt, with an agreement to withdraw his petition, it will avoid the certificate; and, to prevent such practice, petitions against a certificate are not now allowed to be withdrawn as of course. A certificate is a bar against all creditors, whether they have signed or not, but they shall not be deprived of their remedy against the bankrupt, unless it is obtained agreeably to the directions of the statute. As it is iniquitous and illegal for a creditor to take, so it is for him to retain, money paid to him even by the bankrupt's friend for signing the certificate. If a man make use of what is in his own power to extort money from one in distress, it is certainly illegal and oppressive, and whether it is the bankrupt or his friend, who paid the money, it is the same thing. The taking money for signing certificates is either an oppression on the bankrupt and his family, or a fraud on his other creditors. It was a thing wrong in itself before any provision was made against it by statute; for if the bankrupt has conformed to all the law requires of him, and has fairly given up his all, the
creditors

creditors ought in justice to sign his certificate; but, on the other hand, if the bankrupt has been guilty of any fraud or concealment, the creditor ought not to sign for any consideration whatever. If any near relation is induced to pay the money for the bankrupt, it is taking an unfair advantage, and torturing the compassion of his family. If it is the money of the bankrupt himself, it is giving one creditor his debt to the exclusion of the others, and a fraud upon them; therefore an action will lie to recover back money paid to a creditor to sign the bankrupt's certificate. Where an agreement was made to pay a sum of money to the assignees, for the benefit of all the creditors, if they would sign the certificate, it was notwithstanding held to be within the letter and the reason of the statute; for great corruption and oppression might arise from a combination of all the creditors to exact conditions for signing the certificate.

In allowing the bankrupt's certificate, the lord chancellor must be determined by the acts of parliament; and a *mandamus* will not lie to compel the allowance, for it is discretionary in the commissioners first, and afterwards in the lord chancellor, though it ought not to be arbitrary, either in the commissioners or the chancellor to grant or refuse the certificate, but they ought to be governed entirely by the fairness or fraudulent behaviour of the bankrupt. As therefore the chancellor is empowered to exercise a legal discretion in the granting or refusing certificates, he may in the same manner postpone his allowance, whenever the nature of the case appears to require it.

EFFECT OF A CERTIFICATE. The certificate discharges the bankrupt from all debts, both joint and separate, that might have been proved under the commission, therefore it discharges a bankrupt from a debt accruing before the act of bankruptcy, though judgment is not obtained till after the certificate allowed. The bankrupt laws being now adopted in Ireland, if a trader there becomes a bankrupt, and obtains his certificate, it will operate as a discharge in an action brought here upon a debt arising in Ireland. A certificate does not discharge a bankrupt from a contingent debt which has not been reduced to a certainty, because it cannot be proved under the commission; and in questions whether a debt is discharged or not by a certificate, the point agitated has always been, whether it could be proved or not; the creditor's right to prove and the bankrupt's right to be discharged by the certificate, being reciprocal and co-extensive.

The allowing the certificate of a bankrupt will not discharge his sureties; and if they are forced to pay the debt after the commission of bankruptcy, the certificate will be no bar to their

their recovering it of the principal. But if a bankrupt obtains his certificate before his bail are fixed, it will discharge them; if not till after they are fixed, they will remain liable notwithstanding the certificate, for it has no relation back, and till allowed it is nothing. And if the creditor proves his debt, with intent to obstruct the certificate, it does not preclude him from pursuing his legal remedies; and even if he has received his debt, or part of it, under the commission, still he might proceed to fix the bail, who would be entitled to their remedy, so far as they are oppressed, by *audita querela*, or by motion, but they cannot plead the certificate.

The statute empowers one or more of the judges of the court in which the action is brought, to order the sheriff, &c. to discharge the bankrupt out of custody without payment of any fee or reward; and in case of the bankrupt being arrested after his certificate allowed, he is to be discharged upon common bail. But if there is any appearance of fraud on the part of the bankrupt, or it appears that the certificate is seriously meant to be disputed, the court will not interfere in a summary way. If a bankrupt obtained his certificate pending an action to which he had given bail, formerly the method was for the bail to surrender the defendant, and then for him to apply to be discharged, upon an affidavit, stating the fact of his having become a bankrupt since the cause of action arose, and obtained a certificate; but of late, where a bankrupt is clearly entitled to his discharge, the court, to avoid circuitry, have ordered an *exoneretur* to be entered on the bail piece, without the form of a regular surrender of the bankrupt by his bail. But the bail can never be in a better situation than the principal; therefore where it appears that the bankrupt himself would not be entitled to be discharged, a motion on the part of the bail to enter an *exoneretur* on the bail piece will of course be refused.

NEW PROMISE. A bankrupt, after a commission of bankrupt sued out, may, in consideration of a debt due before the bankruptcy, make such creditor a satisfaction, in part, or for the whole of his debt by a new undertaking or agreement, and *assumpsit* for the original consideration will lie upon such new promise or undertaking. For a bankrupt may undoubtedly contract new debts; therefore, if there is any objection to his recovering an old debt by a new promise, it must be founded on the ground of its being *nudum pactum*. But all the debts of a bankrupt are due in conscience, notwithstanding he has obtained his certificate.

DIVIDEND. The act of parliament allows the assignees a complete four months, from the issuing the commission, to make a dividend; therefore the lord chancellor will not inter-

fere

here respecting the dividend within that time. But if the assignees, after the four months are elapsed, refuse to make a dividend, the chancellor will, upon petition, order them to attend the commissioners at a meeting appointed for that purpose, and direct them to declare a dividend, if, upon examining the accounts and the assignees upon oath, they find there is a sufficient fund; or the commissioners may themselves, without an order of the court, summon the assignees to produce their accounts, and shew cause why a dividend should not be declared, which summons and meeting for the assignees' attendance may be had without any expence, upon the application of a creditor who has proved a debt.

If creditors have not been able to prove their debts in time to receive a first dividend, they will still be admitted to prove their debts, if they can reasonably account for their delay, upon the terms of not disturbing any former dividend; and upon obtaining an order for that purpose, they must, in the first place, be brought up equal to the creditors under the former dividends, before the commissioners can proceed to make another. And it is the practice, without an order, to permit creditors to prove at a meeting to declare a dividend, and in the first place to direct them to be paid equal to those who had proved before, and then to direct a general distribution of the residue.

BANKRUPT'S ALLOWANCE. The statute 5 Geo. II. c. 30. directs that every bankrupt who shall, within the time limited by the act, surrender to the commissioners, and in all things conform, as in the act directed, shall be allowed the sum of five pounds *per centum* out of the neat produce of all the estate that shall be recovered by the assignees, in case such neat produce after the allowance made, shall be sufficient to pay the creditors ten shillings in the pound, and so as the allowance shall not amount in the whole to above the sum of two hundred pounds. And in case the neat produce of the estate shall, over and above the allowance next mentioned, be sufficient to pay the creditors twelve shillings and sixpence in the pound, then the bankrupt shall be allowed seven pounds ten shillings *per centum*, but not amounting in the whole to above two hundred and fifty pounds. And in case the neat produce of the said estate shall be sufficient to pay fifteen shillings in the pound, then to be allowed ten pounds *per centum*, not amounting in the whole to above three hundred pounds. Provided always, that if the neat proceed of the bankrupt's estate shall not pay the creditors ten shillings in the pound, the bankrupt shall be allowed so much money as the said assignees and commissioners shall think fit, not exceeding three pounds *per centum*.

Although a bankrupt does surrender and conform, yet he is not entitled to the allowance given to bankrupts, unless he has obtained

obtained his certificate before the final dividend; for if the creditors should consent to give it him before, it would be of no service, as they might take it from him again the next moment; for it would be liable, in his hands, to satisfy any creditor, till he is entirely cleared by the certificate. Bankrupts are not entitled to their allowance, till a final dividend is made, because it cannot be seen before, whether they will be entitled to any allowance at all; for the act of parliament directs, that the neat produce of his estate shall be sufficient to pay the creditors of the bankrupt, who have proved their debts under the commission, the sum of ten shillings in the pound, after such allowance made.

If the bankrupt's estate is more than sufficient to pay twenty shillings in the pound, he is entitled to the surplus; but all creditors by bonds, contracts, or notes carrying interest as has been allowed by the course of dealing, are entitled to receive interest out of his estate for the principal sum owing at the time of the commission, before any surplus shall be conveyed to the bankrupt or his representative.

SUPERSEDEAS. The *Supersedeas* is a writ issuing under the great seal to supersede the commission, and this writ may be issued at the discretion of the lord chancellor, in cases where it is unfit the commission should be proceeded in.

From this detail of the bankrupt laws it will appear that their regulations are at once wise, just, and humane, calculated to afford to the fair creditor the best means of redress, and to the honest debtor a reasonable prospect of re-establishment. That a system affecting so large a mass of property should never afford means of fraud and abuse is not to be expected, but it must be evident that the greatest care and attention have been employed by the legislature to render these frauds as few, and to the perpetrators, as dangerous as possible; and it must be a great satisfaction to all persons interested, to see the affairs of the commission publicly administered by gentlemen of knowledge and character, sworn to impartiality, and restrained from receiving any fee beyond 1*l.* each, for each sitting. And if these circumstances did not afford a sufficient guaranty for justice and impartiality, it is also to be remembered that the appeal lies to the highest law officer in the kingdom, and that doubtful cases may be laid open to trial by a jury.

THE METROPOLIS.

The portion of the British Empire to be considered under this head, comprizes not only the city of London, within and without he walls, properly and anciently termed the Metropolis

or

or capital of the kingdom, but the adjacent parts which have been joined to it, in consequence of the increase of inhabitants and the advance of wealth and luxury; including the city of Westminster, with many parishes in the county of Middlesex, and the borough of Southwark, with several in Surrey. Maitland, who published his history of London fifty years ago, says, this ancient city has ingulphed one city, one borough, and forty-three villages, *viz.* the city of Westminster, the borough of Southwark, and the villages of Mora, Finsbury, Wenlabarn, Clerkenwell, Mlington, Hoxton, Shoreditch, Norton-falgate, the Spital, Whitechapel, Mile-End New-Town, Mile-End Old-Town, Stepney, Poplar, Limehouse, Ratcliff, Shadwell, Wapping, Stepney, East Smithfield, the Hermitage, St. Catharine's, the Minories, St. Clements-Danes, the Strand, Charing Cross, St. James's, Knight's-Bridge, Soho, St. Giles's in the Fields, Bloomsbury, Portpool, Saffron-hill, Holborn, Vauxhall, Lambeth, Lambeth-Marsh, Kennington, Newington Buts, Bermondsey the Grange, Horsleydown and Rotherhithe. To these may be added the intire parish of St. Mary-le-bonne, and a great portion of that of St. Pancras, which, since Maitland's work was published, have been covered with houses, and contain more than one hundred thousand inhabitants. The whole metropolis extends nearly eight miles in length, is three miles at least in breadth, and not less than twenty-six in circumference; containing above eight thousand streets, lanes, alleys, and courts, and sixty-five squares. The population of the metropolis, as returned to Parliament in 1801, is in the abstract as follows:

	HOUSES.			PERSONS.		
	Inhabited.	By how many families occupied.	Uninhabited.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
London within the Walls	10,224	16,229	325	37,020	38,151	75,171
London without the Walls	20,680	36,178	682	69,827	77,402	147,229
Out Parishes in Middlesex and Surrey	56,207	93,886	2,244	163,899	200,627	364,526
City and Liberties of Westminster	18,231	40,833	784	71,301	86,909	158,210
Inns of Court, Extra Parochial	1,230	816	62	1,293	614	1,907
Parishes not within the Bills of Mortality	14,657	28,131	1,088	50,029	67,773	117,802
Total	121,229	216,073	5,185	393,369	471,476	864,845

London

London is situated in the latitude of 51 degrees 31 minutes north; at the distance of 500 miles south-west of Copenhagen; 190 west of Amsterdam; 660 north-west of Vienna; 225 north-west of Paris; 690 north-east of Madrid; 750 north-west of Rome; and 1500 north-west of Constantinople. It extends from west to east, along the banks of the river Thames, being distant from the sea about sixty miles. The choice of the situation of this great city was most judicious. It is on a gravelly soil; and on a declivity down to the borders of a magnificent river. The slope is evident in every part of the ancient city, and the vast modern buildings. The ancient city was defended in front by the river; on the west side by the deep ravine, since known by the name of Fleet Ditch; on the north by morasses; on the east, probably by another ravine. All the land round Westminster abbey was a flat fen, which continued beyond Fulham: but a rise commences opposite to it, and forms a magnificent bend above the curvature of the Thames, even to the Tower. The Surrey-side was in all probability a great expanse of water, a lake, a Llyn, as the Welsh call it, which some think might have given a name to the capital; Llyn Din, or the city on the lake. The expanse of water might have filled the space between the rising grounds at Deptford, and those at Clapham; and been bounded to the south, by the beautiful Surrey-hills. Lambeth-marsh, and the Bankside evidently were recovered from the water. Along Lambeth are the names of narrow walls, or the mounds which serve for that purpose; and in Southwark, Bankside again shews the means of converting the ancient lake into useful land: even to this day the tract beyond Southwark, and in particular that beyond Bermondsey-street, is so very low, and beneath the level of common tides, that the proprietors are obliged to secure it by embankments. The situation with respect to navigation is peculiarly favourable, being neither too high nor too low. Had it been placed lower down upon the river, it would not only have been annoyed by the marshes, but more liable to insults from foreign foes; and if it had been higher, it would not have been accessible, as it is at present, to ships of large burdens. But its actual position is such as to give it every advantage, that can be derived from a seaport, without any of its dangers. It also enjoys, by means of its noble river, a very extensive communication with the internal parts of the country, that supply it with every species of the necessaries of life, and receive from it, in return, those articles of commerce, which they may respectively require. It is plentifully supplied with the very great and important article of fuel, by the navigation

gation of its river, from the northern collieries, which branch of commerce forms a principal nursery for seamen, independent of foreign trade; and is a very distinguished source of its naval superiority. The principal streets are open and airy, and surpass all others in Europe in their convenience for trade, and the accommodation of passengers of every description; they are paved in the middle for carriages, with large stones in a very compact manner, forming a small convexity to pass the water off by channels; and on each side is a broad level path, formed of flag-stones, raised a little above the centre, for the convenience of foot passengers. Underneath the pavements are large vaulted channels called sewers, which communicate with each house by smaller ones, and with every street, by convenient openings and gratings, to carry off all filth that can be conveyed in that manner into the river. All mud or other rubbish that accumulates, is taken away by persons employed by the public for that purpose. Most of the great streets appropriated to shops for retail trade, have an unrivalled aspect of wealth and splendour. The shops themselves are handsomely fitted up, and decorated with taste; but the manufactures with which they are stored form their chief ornament. Most of the houses in London are built on an uniform plan. Water is conveyed three times a week into almost every house, by leaden pipes, and preserved in cisterns or tubs, in such quantities that the inhabitants have a constant and even lavish supply.

In considering the metropolis, the city of London properly so called will first be noticed, then Westminster and Southwark in a general way, and afterwards some separate or miscellaneous particulars relating to them all.

It would be foreign to the purpose of this work, to investigate the ancient history of London, nor could any thing satisfactory be derived from the authors who have treated on the subject, formed as their accounts are of gross fictions, and uncertain conjectures. In the reign of Nero, Anno Domini 61, authentic mention is made of this city by Tacitus, and he speaks of it as a place already well established, and in the enjoyment of a considerable trade. The exports at that time were cattle, hides and corn; dogs made a small article; and slaves were a considerable object. Our internal parts were on a level with the African slave coasts; and wars among the petty monarchs were promoted for the sake of that traffic. The imports were at first salt, earthen-ware, and works in brass, polished bits of bone emulating ivory, horse collars, toys of amber, and glasses, and other articles of the same material. When the Romans became masters of London, they enlarged the precincts, and altered their form. The city extended in length from Ludgate-hill,

hill, to a spot a little beyond the Tower. The breadth was not half equal to the length, and at each end grew considerably narrower. Maitland suspects that the walls were not built till a very late period of the empire, and that it was an open town; because the city happened to be surprized, in the days of Dioclesian and Maximilian, by a party of banditti, who were cut off by a band of Roman soldiers, who fortunately had, at the very time they were engaged in the plunder, come up the river in a fog. The time in which the wall was built is very uncertain. Some ascribe the work to Constantine the Great. Maitland, to Theodosius, governor of Britain in 369. As to the last, we know no more, than that, after he had cleared the country of the barbarians, he redressed grievances, strengthened the garrisons, and repaired the cities and forts which had been damaged. If London was among those, it certainly implies a prior fortification. Possibly the founder of the walls might have been Constantine, as numbers of coins of his mother, Helena, have been discovered under them, placed in compliment to her. This conjecture is strengthened by the observation, that in honour of this empress, the city, about that time, received from her the title of Augusta; which for some time superseded the ancient one of Londinium. Long before this period, it was fully romanized, and the customs, manners, buildings, and arts of the conquerors adopted. The commerce of the empire flowed in regularly; came in a direct channel from several parts then known, not as in the earlier days (when described by Strabo) by the intervention of other nations; for till the settlement of the Roman conquest, nothing could come immediately from Italy. The ancient course of the walls was as follows:—It began with a fort near the present site of the Tower, was continued along the Minories, and the back of Houndsditch, across Bishopsgate-street, in a straight line by London-wall to Cripplegate, then returned southward by Crowder's Well-alley, (where several remnants of lofty towers were lately to be seen,) to Alderfgate; thence along the back of Bull-and-Mouth-street to Newgate, and again along the back of the houses in the Old Bailey to Ludgate; soon after which it probably finished with another fort, where the house, late the king's printing-house, in Blackfriars, now stands: from hence another wall ran near the river side, along Thames-street, quite to the fort on the eastern extremity. The walls were three miles, a hundred and sixty-five feet in circumference, guarded at proper distances, on the land-side, with fifteen lofty towers; some of them were remaining within these few years and possibly may still. Maitland mentions one, twenty-six feet high near Gravel-lane, on the west-side of Houndsditch; another, about eighty paces south-east towards

Aldgate; but since his publication, they have been demolished, so that there is not a trace left. The walls, when perfect, are supposed to have been twenty-two feet high, the towers forty. These, with the remnants of the wall, were proved to be of Roman structure, by the tiles and disposition of the masonry. London-wall, near Moorfields, is now the most entire part left of that ancient precinct. The gates, which received the great military roads, were four. The Prætorian way, the Saxon Watling-street, passed under one, on the site of the late Newgate; vestiges having been discovered of the road in digging above Holborn-bridge: it turned down to Dowgate, or more properly Dur-gate, or Water-gate, where there was a Trajectus or Ferry, to join it to the Watling-street, which was continued to Dover. The Hermin-street passed under Cripplegate; and a vicinal way went under Aldgate, by Bethnal-green, towards Oldford, a pass over the river Lee to Dursleiton, the modern Leyton, in Essex.

When the Romans quitted Britain, the Britons maintained possession of London against the Saxons for at least nine years; during the heptarchy, it became the capital of the kingdom of Essex, and the emporium of many nations, and Sebert, the first Christian king of Essex, founded a church, which he dedicated to St. Paul. Alfred made it the capital of all England, as it has ever since continued, its prosperity fluctuating according to the variations of early times, but on the whole generally advancing.

CHARTERS. William the Conqueror, soon after his accession, granted to the citizens of London, that all laws relating to them, which were in force in the time of Edward the Confessor should be confirmed; that the sons of the citizens should inherit the effects of their fathers and no one do wrong. This grant, Dr. Brady observes, if it can properly be called a charter, is the earliest charter of incorporation existing; but he considers it rather as an instrument of protection than a charter. It has however been generally considered as a charter, for it has been referred to and renewed in many subsequent charters, down to the reign of Charles II. who in general terms granted a full renewal of all the charters and privileges bestowed by his predecessors from the days of William of Normandy. The different monarchs who so favoured this city, granted to the citizens many rights and immunities, the most important of which are in full force at this day.

GOVERNMENT. At the time of the conquest, the chief officer of London was called the port-reeve, or port-grave, from two Saxon words, signifying chief governor of a harbour; the title was at that time not uncommon, and is
not

not now entirely out of use. In subsequent times, he was called provost, being a name more conformable to the Roman idiom, and yet not altogether unlike that of portgrave; but in the reign of Henry II., the Norman title of maire was brought into use, and soon rendered English by spelling it Mayor. In process of time, as the importance of the capital was more sensibly felt, and the rights and privileges of the citizens better understood and confirmed, the mayor gained the title of lord, and the style of right honourable, which he has ever since retained. Under him the city is governed by its aldermen, recorder, sheriffs, chamberlain, and common serjeant, with their proper officers.

LORD MAYOR. By virtue of an act of the common council, made in 1476, the lord mayor is annually chosen on Michaelmas day; for which purpose, the liverymen assemble in Guildhall, and by holding up of hands, choose two of the senior aldermen below the chair, who being returned to the court of lord mayor and aldermen, the senior alderman is commonly declared lord mayor elect. Soon afterwards he is presented to the lord chancellor (as his majesty's representative) for his approbation; and on the ninth of November following is sworn into the office of mayor at Guildhall, and before the barons of the Exchequer at Westminster. In the morning of the said day, the aldermen and sheriffs repair to the lord mayor's residence, whence they attend him to Guildhall in a most magnificent procession. From Guildhall they go in coaches to Three Cranes-stairs, where they embark in splendid barges for Westminster-hall, and return in the same way to Blackfriars-bridge, whence they proceed in coaches to Guildhall, and are most sumptuously feasted by the chief magistrate; whose entertainment is frequently honoured with the presence of princes, nobles, ministers of state, foreign ambassadors, and other persons of the highest distinction. Although the office of lord mayor is elective, yet his authority does not cease on the demise or abdication of the king, as that of the commission officers does; and in such cases, the lord mayor of London is said to be the principal officer of the kingdom. His power is very great; for he is not only the king's representative in the civil government of the city, but likewise first commissioner of the lieutenancy, perpetual coroner and escheator within the city and liberties of London, and borough of Southwark, chief justice of oyer and terminer, and gaol-delivery of Newgate, judge of the courts of wardmote at the election of aldermen; conservator of the rivers Thames and Medway, whereby he is empowered, if any citizen or apprentice of London be carried away, and by force

detained on shipboard, by his warrant, to compel the master of such ship or vessel to release the said citizen. The lord mayor, is also a perpetual commissioner in all affairs relating to the river Lea, and chief butler of the kingdom at all coronations, having a fee for that service of a golden cup and cover, with a golden ewer. The lord mayor, upon all public occasions, is cloathed according to the season, either in scarlet or purple robes richly furred, with a velvet hood and golden chain, or collar of S. S. with a rich jewel appendant; and when abroad, he is attended by a great number of his officers, before and on each side; and when on foot, his train is supported by a page, and the city sword and mace carried before him, attended by the sheriffs. The officers belonging to the lord mayor, for the support of his dignity, are the sword-bearer, who for the expence of his table has a very considerable annual allowance; the common hunt, common crier, and water bailiff, who have all liberal salaries, or perquisites, with each the title of esquire; together with the three serjeant carvers, three serjeants of the chamber, a serjeant of the channel, two yeomen of the chamber, four yeomen of the water-side, a yeoman of the channel, an under water bailiff, six young men waiters, three meal weighers, two yeomen of the wood wharf, and the foreign-taker.

ALDERMEN. The title alderman is derived from the Saxon, in which language it was applied as a term of precedence, not denoting according to its liberal import, that the individual who bore it was the most aged, but the most honourable person in his community. In London there are twenty-six aldermen, corresponding with the number of wards into which the city is divided, each alderman having peculiar jurisdiction over one ward. The office of alderman was annual until the 17th Richard II., 1394, when it was enacted, that they should continue during life, or during good behaviour. The aldermen of London having anciently become so by purchase, occasioned great jealousies and heart-burnings among the commonalty; for the allaying of which, and preventing the like for the future, it was in the year 1402 by the common council, enacted, that they should be elective; the manner of which election has several times varied. But in the year 1714, by the common council of the city, it was enacted, that from thenceforth in all elections of aldermen, there should be chosen only one citizen by the inhabitants of every ward destitute of an alderman, and the person so elected, to be returned by the lord mayor (or other returning officer duly qualified to hold a court of wardmote) to the court of lord mayor and aldermen, by whom the person so returned is to be admitted, and sworn
into

into the office of alderman. A statute 11 Geo. I. c. 18, also regulates the manner of taking polls when demanded, and the qualifications of voters in the election of these and other officers in the city. The aldermen of London are the second constituent part of the city legislature, and all that have passed the chair, and three under it, are by charter, perpetual justices of peace within the city; and by the same power, they are by virtue of their office exempt from serving on inquests, juries, &c. as they are likewise without the city from parish offices. The court held by them, together with the other courts in the city of London, are mentioned in Vol. II. p. 465.

SHERIFFS. In London and Middlesex there are two sheriffs; the beginning of which custom seems to be founded on the charter of king John, who granted the sheriffwick of London and Middlesex to the mayor and citizens of London, at the farm of 300*l. per annum*; so that being a grant in fee of the sheriffwick to them as a corporation, they had a right to name one or more officers, in order to execute the same, and they thought it proper to name two officers indifferently to execute both offices, both of whom execute as one sheriff, though the writ in Middlesex is directed to them as one, in London it is to both. The reason of this difference seems to be, that before this grant of the sheriffwick to the corporation, the corporation nominated to the crown, and the crown appointed the sheriffs for London; and the London sheriffs were responsible to the king for the London profits of the sheriffwick; and that was the reason why two were appointed, that both might be responsible, and this nomination was, that the citizens might exhibit to the king responsible persons; and that seems to be the reason that in many of the corporations that are cities and counties, there are two sheriffs. But when by the charter of king John, the sheriffwick of London and Middlesex, was granted to the citizens as a perpetual fee-farm, then they elected their sheriffs, who before were nominated for London only, and the election of the two was for both sheriffwicks, but the directions of the king's writs were as before, viz. in London to the two sheriffs, and in Middlesex as if there was only one. The two sheriffs regularly make but one officer, and therefore if one of them die, the office is at an end until another is chosen, and the courts of Westminster can award no process to the other. The election is by the liverymen on Midsummer-day in every year; the sheriffs entering on their office on the Michaelmas-day following. In 1748, the corporation of London made a bye-law, imposing a fine of 600*l.* upon every person who, being elected, should refuse to serve the office of sheriff.

RECORDER. The qualifications of the recorder of the city, are thus set down in one of the books of the chamber. That
 “ he shall be, and is wont to be, one of the most skilful and
 “ virtuous apprentices of the law of the whole kingdom;
 “ whose office is to sit on the right hand of the mayor, in
 “ recording pleas, and passing judgments; and by whom
 “ records and proceffes, had before the mayor and aldermen
 “ at Great St. Martin’s, ought to be recorded by word of
 “ mouth before the judges assigned there to correct errors.
 “ The mayor and aldermen have therefore used commonly to
 “ set forth all other busineses, touching the city, before the
 “ king and his council, as also in certain of the king’s courts,
 “ by Mr. Recorder, as a chief man endued with wisdom, and
 “ eminent for eloquence.” His oath is well, and faithfully, to
 render all the judgments of the hustings, after the mayor and
 aldermen should meet concerning their pleas, and agreed to-
 gether; and also all other judgments touching the city of
 London, &c. And that he shall do justice as well to poor as
 rich. And that all the pleas of the hustings, presently after the
 hustings is finished, he shall oversee, order and cause to be
 enrolled, according to the things pleaded, &c. And that he
 shall come prepared to dispatch the business of the city, &c,
 when he shall be lawfully warned by the mayor and bailiffs.
 He takes place in councils and in courts, before any man that
 has not been mayor, and learnedly delivers the sentences of
 the whole court.

CHAMBERLAIN. The chamberlain is an officer of great
 repute and trust; and though annually chosen on Midsummer
 day, yet not displaced, but generally continued during life, if
 no just and great crimes are made out against him. He had
 the keeping of the monies, lands, and goods of the city orphans,
 or takes good security for the payment thereof, when the parties
 came to age. And to that end he was deemed in the law a
 sole corporation, to him and his successors for orphans; and
 therefore a bond, or recognizance made to him and his suc-
 cessors, was recoverable by his successors. This officer has a
 court peculiarly belonging to him. His office may be termed
 a public treasury, collecting the customs, monies, and yearly
 revenues, and all other payments belonging to the corporation
 of the city.

THE COMMON SERJEANT. The duty of this officer is to
 attend the lord mayor and court of aldermen on court days,
 and to be in the council with them, on all occasions, within and
 without the precincts or liberties of the city. He takes care of
 orphans’ estates, either by taking account of them, or signs
 their indentures, before their passing the lord mayor and court
 of aldermen. And likewise to let, set and manage the orphans’
 estates,

estates, according to his judgment, to their best advantage. He sits with the recorder as a judge at the sessions of oyer and terminer in the Old Bailey.

TOWN CLERK. This officer keeps the original charters of the city, the books, rolls, and other records, wherein are registered the acts and proceedings of the city. He is to attend the lord mayor and aldermen at their courts.

CORONER. Although the lord mayor is coroner of the city, yet he has an officer appointed to that portion of his duties, which are precisely similar to those of coroner for any other county.

CITY REMEMBRANCER. This officer is to attend the lord mayor on certain days; his business being to put his lordship in mind of the select days he is to go abroad with the aldermen, &c. He is to attend daily at the parliament house during the sessions, and to report to the lord mayor their transactions.

COMMON HUNT. When this officer had any business, it was to take care of the pack of hounds belonging to the mayor and citizens, and to attend them in hunting when they pleased. Formerly, on the north side of Moorfields, stood the *Doghouse*, in which were kept the hounds for the amusement of the lord mayor, and which was the residence of the common hunt. He is an officer, the second in rank in the *Prætorian* establishment. Master sword-bearer alone takes place of him. The office is continued although its duties have ceased.

COMMON CRIER. It belongs to the common crier and the serjeant at arms to summons all executors and administrators of freemen to appear, and to bring in inventories of the personal estates of freemen, within two months after their decease: and he is to have notice of the appraisements. He is also to attend the lord mayor on set days, and at the courts held weekly by the mayor and aldermen.

WATER BAILIFF. This officer is to look after the preservation of the river Thames against all encroachments; and to look after the fishermen, for the preservation of the young fry, to prevent the destroying them by unlawful nets. For that end there are juries for each county, that has any part of it lying on the sides or shores of the river, which juries, summoned by the water-bailiff at certain times, make inquiry of all offences relating to the river and the fish; and make their presentments accordingly. He is also bound to attend the lord mayor on set days in the week.

Besides these there are many other officers, rendered necessary by the different estates and trusts, vested in the corporation of the city of London, as the register of the orphans' fund, who acts under the chamberlain; the bridge-masters who take care of all matters relating to property derived to the city from its right in London-bridge, with many others; and there is a
long

long list of persons employed in the service, or to maintain the state and dignity of the chief magistrate.

COMMON COUNCILMEN. By a law of the common council made on the last day of July, in the 8th of Richard II., it was ordained, That the common council should be chosen by the wards fifteen days after St. Gregory; and that they should chuse those who had served the year before, or others; and that once a quarter at least the common council should be assembled to consult and take care of the affairs of the city; and in the ninth year of the same king, there was a confirmation and settlement of the choice of common councilmen by the wards, by four, six, and eight, according to the extent of each ward.

WARD. The time when the city of London was first divided into wards is not known, nor does the number first constituted appear on record. In 1284, they appear to have been twenty-four; in 1393, the great ward of Farringdon being very much increased both in number of houses and inhabitants, was by parliament divided into the inward and outward wards, whereby the number was increased to twenty-five; and in 1550, the citizens having purchased of Edward VI. the borough of Southwark, with divers privileges thereunto belonging, erected it into a twenty-sixth ward; but it seems, the power granted them by charter not proving sufficient to support their title, by excluding the justices of the peace for the county of Surrey, from interfering in the government, it is only a nominal ward: however it serves to dignify the senior alderman, called the father of the city, who generally by his great age is rendered unable to undergo the fatigue of business. Including it with the rest, the names and characteristic circumstances are as follow.

ALDERSGATE WARD. This ward takes its name from one of the northern gates of the city; and is situated partly within and partly without the wall. It has an alderman and two deputies, one within the gate and one without, and eight common councilmen.

ALDGATE. This ward takes its name from the east-gate of the city, called Aldgate or anciently Ealdgate. It has an alderman, his deputy, and six common councilmen, including the deputy.

BASINGHALL, or BASSISHAW. This ward is very small, consisting of one street, called Basinghall-street, from Basinghall, the principal house in it. It has an alderman, his deputy, and four common councilmen.

BILLINGSGATE. This ward is situated on the river side; as to the derivation of the name, authors are not agreed; but

but the most probable opinion refers us to some eminent person, who, in ancient times, had large possessions in this part of the city, or held in this ward by the same tenure, as the Basing, &c. held other wards. It has an alderman and ten common councilmen.

BISHOPSGATE WARD. The name of this ward is derived from the gate, which stands almost in its centre. It has an alderman, two deputies, one without the gate and another within, and six common councilmen.

BREAD STREET WARD. Takes its name from the principal street in it, called Bread-street, which, in old time, was the bread-market. It has an alderman, his deputy, and twelve more common councilmen.

BRIDGE WARD (within). The name of this ward is derived from its connexion with London-bridge; and it begins southward at the end of the bridge next Southwark. It has an alderman and his deputy, included in the fifteen common councilmen.

BRIDGE WARD (without). Consists of the borough of Southwark, but for the reason already mentioned, it has only an alderman, whose duties are nominal.

BROAD STREET. This ward derives its name from that part of it called Broad-street, which lies almost in the centre thereof, and in ancient times was peculiarly distinguished from the rest of the streets in the metropolis by the name of Broad, there being few before the fire of London, of such a breadth within the walls. It has an alderman, with his deputy and nine other common councilmen.

CANDLEWICK. This ward took its name from a street called Candlewick or Candlewright-street, a place remarkable for wax and tallow-chandlers, or candle-wrights, as they were anciently termed. It has an alderman, his deputy, and seven other common councilmen.

CASTLE BAYNARD WARD. Derives its name from an ancient castle built by one Baynard, a nobleman of great authority, who came from Normandy with the conqueror, and which was situated on the bank near the Thames. It has an alderman, a deputy, and nine other common councilmen.

CHEAP. The name of this ward is taken from the Saxon word Chepe, a market, kept in this division of the city in those days. This market was peculiarly known by the name of West Cheap, from its situation, to distinguish it from the market between Candlewick-street and Tower-street, which from its situation also was called East Cheap. The ward has an alderman, a deputy, and eleven other common councilmen.

COLEMAN-STREET WARD. Has its name from the principal street therein, built by one Coleman; or probably it derived its distinction from the many dealers in coal, which anciently inhabited it; for that was the common method our forefathers observed in giving names to the several streets of this city, either on account of the trades carried on there, or for some remarkable building on that site. There are an alderman, and including the deputy, six common councilmen.

CORDWAINER'S-STREET WARD. This name is obviously derived from the occupation of the principal inhabitants, who were cordwainers, or shoemakers, curriers, and other workers of leather. The ward has an alderman, a deputy, and eight other common councilmen.

CORNHILL WARD. This name is derived from the principal street, which was anciently a great corn market. It is governed by an alderman and six common councilmen, including the deputy.

CRIPPLEGATE WARD. Takes its name from the north-west gate of the city; it consists of two parts; one lying within Cripplegate and London-wall, and the other to the extent of the freedom, without. This ward has an alderman, with a deputy and seven common councilmen within, and a deputy, and three common councilmen without the walls.

DOWGATE WARD. Various are the opinions concerning the etymology of this ward. Some derive it from Dour-gate, which they say signifies Watergate, and stood in the wall next the Thames, at the bottom of the hill, others will have it derived from its situation, which is a great descent, and the gate which stood at the bottom of the hill: which last opinion has prevailed so far, that modern writers have given it the name of Downgate; while in common use, the citizens differ from both, and call it Dowgate ward. It has an alderman, a deputy, and seven other common councilmen.

FARRINGDON (within). This ward, together with Farringdon without, had in ancient times but one alderman, and that not by election, but by inheritance or purchase. This right descended to Nicholas Farendon, a goldsmith, who was four times mayor, and was by his will, dated 1361, transmitted to his posterity, in whose possession it continued eighty-two years, and still retains the family name. The addition of within is on account of this part of Farringdon wards lying within the walls of London, containing the ancient wards of Newgate and Ludgate. And this addition was given to each part by act of parliament, when that large possession of the Farendons was divided into two aldermanries to be governed by

by two aldermen. This ward has an alderman, his deputy, and sixteen other common councilmen.

FARRINGTON (Without). This ward is of very great extent, and is the furthest ward west in the city. It is governed by an alderman, his deputy, and fifteen other common council-men.

LANGBOURNE WARD. To the title of this ward is added *Fenny about*, and the derivation of both names is thus given. Langbourne takes its name from a rivulet or long bourne, of sweet water, which anciently broke out of a spring near to the place where Magpye-alley, adjoining to St. Catherine's Coleman's church now stands, which ran down the street westward, and through Lombard-street, as far as the west end of St. Mary Woolnoth's church, where, turning south, and dividing itself into several rills, shares, or streams, it gave name to Sharebourne-lane, called also Southbourne-lane, because it ran south to the river Thames; and by its spreading near the spring head, the contiguous street became so swampy, moorish or fenny, especially about the church, which stood in the broadway between Mincing-lane and Rood-lane, that it was thence called Fen-church-street. The ward also partook of the same name, and was enrolled in the city records by the appellation of Langbourne and Fenny about. In this ward are, an alderman, a deputy, and ten other common councilmen.

LIME-STREET WARD. Derives its name from that of a principal street, and is governed by an alderman, a deputy, and three other common councilmen.

PORTSOKEN WARD. This name, which has given occasion for so many puns, is derived from a Latin and a Saxon word, signifying a gate and a franchise. The origin of the title is described by an old writer in these terms. This Portsoken, which signifies a franchise at the gate, was some time a guild, and had its beginning in the reign of Edgar, between seven and eight hundred years ago, when thirteen knights, well beloved of the king and realm for services by them done, requested to have a certain portion of land on the east part of the city, left desolate and forsaken by the inhabitants, by reason of too much servitude. They besought the king to have this land, with the liberty of a guild, for ever. The king granted their request on the following conditions, to wit, That each of them should victoriously accomplish three combats, one above the ground, one under the ground, and the third in the water: and after this, at a certain day, in East Smithfield, they should run with spears against all comers; all which was gloriously performed. The king accordingly gave them their guild, and fixed their boundaries.

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The ward has an alderman and five common councilmen, including the deputy.

QUEENHITHE WARD. This word receives its name from the hithe, or harbour for large boats, barges, or lighters, and even for ships, which in ancient times anchored at that place, as they do now at Billingsgate; the timber-bridge or lock on London-bridge being drawn up for their passage through; Queenhithe being then the principal key, wharf, or strand for lading and unlading in the heart of the city. It is governed by an alderman, a deputy, and five common councilmen.

TOWER-STREET WARD. The derivation of its name is sufficiently obvious: it is governed by an alderman, deputy, and eleven other common councilmen.

VINTRY WARD. This ward takes its name from a part thereof called the Vintrie by the ancients, occupied by vintners or wine merchants from Bourdeaux, settled on the bank of the river Thames; at which place they landed their wines, and were obliged to sell them in forty days, till the 28th of Edward I. who, by privy seal, granted longer time, and certain privileges to those merchants. It has an alderman and nine common councilmen, one of whom is deputy.

COMPANIES. For the greater encouragement of the trade and navigation of this city and kingdom, king Athelstan, in the year 928, made a law, that, if a merchant on his own account make three voyages into the Straits, he shall be advanced in honour, and enjoy the privilege of a gentleman. And as an encouragement to foreign merchants to frequent the ports of this kingdom, it was granted by Henry III. in his great charter, that they (exclusive of such as were previously precluded) should not only have free egress and regress from, and to all the ports of the kingdom, but likewise the liberty of travelling into all parts thereof, to negotiate their trade, toll free, except in time of war. Guilds, companies, or incorporations were anciently either secular or religious, established by the king. The secular guilds were either *Gilda mercatoria*, a merchant guild, or *Gilda mercatorium*, a guild of merchants, tradesmen and artizans; each of which guilds were composed of an alderman, chaplain, eschevins, elders, and inferior members, as appears by a convention made between the dean and canons of *St. Martin's-le-grand*, and the guild or company of sadlers towards the close of the twelfth century. And the religious guilds, founded for devotion and alms deeds, consisted of an alderman, master, brothers,

brothers, and sisters: That guilds or gilds are of great antiquity in this city, is apparent by the devotional guilds of St. Andrew Wardrobe, St. Dunstan's in the East, and St. Lawrence Poulteney. But that the secular are of a more ancient date, is manifest from the companies of weavers and bakers. The following list of the guilds, or companies of London, with the annual charities which they distribute, and the principal circumstances attending them, is extracted from Postlethwaite's dictionary of commerce, published in 1774, with a few additions to each article. They are arranged according to their precedence, beginning with the twelve principal, of one of which the lord mayors have generally made themselves free at their election, if they were not so before; for they are not only the most ancient, but the richest, many of them having had the honour of kings and princes to be their members, the apartments of their halls being fit to entertain a monarch.

1. **MERCERS.** £. 3000. Exclusive of 20 per cent. paid yearly to the widows of subscribing clergymen during life, pursuant to a proposal accepted in 1698, when they settled a fund of 14,000*l.* a year for that purpose. Date of incorporation, 17 Rich. II. Hall in Cheapside.
2. **GROCERS.** £. 700.—Date of incorporation, 1345. Hall, Grocer's-alley, or Grocer's-hall-court, Poultry.
3. **DRAPERS.** £. 4000.—Date of incorporation, 1439. Hall, Throgmorton-street.
4. **FISHMONGERS.** £. 800.—Date of Incorporation, 7 Rich. II. 1384. Hall, Thames-street.
5. **GOLDSMITHS.** £. 1000.—They had a privilege from Edward IV. to inspect, try, and regulate all gold and silver wares throughout the kingdom, and to punish all workers in either, that adulterated the same. Date of incorporation, 26 Henry II. 1180. Hall, Foster-lane, Cheapside.
6. **SKINNERS.** £. 700.—Date of incorporation, 1 Edward III. 1327. Hall, Dowgate-hill.
7. **MERCHANT TAYLORS.** £. 2000.—They were once styled tailors, and linen armourers.—Date of incorporation, 5 Edward IV. 1466. Hall, Threadneedle-street.
8. **HABERDASHERS.** £. 5300.—Were anciently styled Milaners, because they dealt most in goods which came from Milan. Date of incorporation, 26 Hen. VI. 1447. Hall, Maiden-lane.
9. **SALTERS.** £. 500.—Date of incorporation, 1394. Hall, St. Swithin's-lane.

10. **IRON-**

10. IRONMONGERS. £. 1800.—In 1724, Mr. Betton, a Turkey merchant, left 26,000*l.* in trust; one moiety of the profits of it always to be applied to the ransom of British captives from Moorish slavery; the other for the poor of the company, and to the charity schools in the city, and its liberty. Date of incorporation, 3 Edward IV. 1464. Hall, Fenchurch-street.
11. VINTNERS. £. 600.—Date of incorporation, 15 Henry VII. 1437. Hall, Thames-street.
12. CLOTHWORKERS. £. 1400.—Date of incorporation, 1482. Hall, Mincing-lane.
13. DYERS.—This company, which was anciently one of the twelve, was incorporated 11 Edward IV. 1472. Among other privileges of this society, that of keeping swans upon the river Thames is one. Hall, Little Elbow-lane.
14. BREWERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Henry VI. 1438. Hall, Addle-street.
15. LEATHER-SELLERS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Henry VI. 1442. Henry VII. made them wardens, inspectors of sheep, lamb, and calves' leather, throughout the kingdom. Hall, Little St. Helen's.
16. PEWTERERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Edward IV. 1474. By act of parliament, 25 Henry VIII. their wardens had the inspection of pewter throughout England. Hall, Lime-street.
17. BARBER-SURGEONS.—In the reign of Henry VIII. the surgeons of this company, then but nineteen, were exempted by Parliament from ward and parish offices, and from military service. The art of surgery anciently being solely practised by the barbers of this city, they were, by letters patent of Edward IV. anno 1461, incorporated by the name of the masters, or governors of the mystery or commonalty of the Barbers of London. Some time after, others assuming the practice of surgery, the Barbers in the third of Henry VIII. 1512, obtained an act of parliament to prevent all persons from practising surgery within the city of London and seven miles of the same. In the sixth year of the said reign, 1515, the practising Barbers or Surgeons of this city, in number nineteen, were, in consideration of their constant attendance on patients, not only by Parliament exempted from serving ward and parish offices, but likewise from all military services. By virtue of the first mentioned act of parliament, divers persons (not Barbers), being examined and admitted as practitioners in

in the art of surgery, they soon erected themselves into a society, separate from that of Barbers; which the parliament taking into consideration, for their mutual interests united them, by the appellation of the masters or governors of the mystery or commonalty of barbers and surgeons of London. And as the said act strictly enjoins all persons practising the art of shaving, not to intermeddle with that of surgery, except what belongs to the drawing of teeth; so does it likewise all surgeons from following the practice of shaving. However, all the above-mentioned encouragements could not prevent the surgeons from falling into a scandalous ignorance and extortion, whereby the lives of many were destroyed, and the substance of others basely extorted. Yet nevertheless they shamefully continued to harass persons more worthy and skilful than themselves; and that for no other reason than their extensive charity and universal benevolence, in administering proper remedies to objects of commiseration, at their own expence: which the parliament in the year 1544, taking into consideration, occasioned their laying open the practice of surgery, as an encouragement for all persons skilled in the nature of herbs, roots, and waters, to exert themselves in the exercise thereof, for the relief and cure of wounded and distressed objects of compassion. By statute 18 Geo. II. c. 15. the corporation of Barber-surgeons was dissolved, and the surgeons of London were made a separate body. The company of Barbers are possessed of their former magnificent hall in Monkwell-street, to transact their affairs in: and the company of Surgeons have built a new and elegant hall in the Old Bailey, where they have a theatre for the dissection of human bodies.

18. CUTLERS.—This company was incorporated by letters patent of Henry V. 1417. The haft and sheath-makers some time after were joined to this company. Hall, Cloak-lane.
19. BAKERS.—This fraternity is of great antiquity, being recognized in 1155; but does not appear to have been incorporated till 1307. Hall, Harp-lane.
20. WAX-CHANDLERS.—Date of incorporation, 1 Rich. III. 1483. Hall, Maiden-lane.
21. TALLOW-CHANDLERS.—Date of incorporation, 2 Edw. IV. 1463. Hall, Dowgate-hill.
22. ARMOURERS.—The Braziers are united to this company. Date of incorporation, 1423. Hall, Coleman-street.

23. GIRDERS.—Queen Elizabeth incorporated the Pinner and Wire-drawers with them. Hall, Basinghall-street.
24. BUTCHERS.—This appears to be a very ancient fraternity; for in the 26th Henry II. 1180, it was fined in the Exchequer as an adulterine guild, for being set up without the king's licence. However, it was not incorporated till the 3d James I. 1605. Hall, Pudding-lane.
25. SADLERS.—This company is of great antiquity, though not incorporated till the reign of Edward I. and was highly honoured by Frederick, Prince of Wales; not only in accepting its freedom, but in condescending to be its perpetual master. Hall, Cheapside.
26. CARPENTERS.—Date of incorporation, 1344. Hall, London-wall.
27. CORDWAINERS.—Date of incorporation, 11 Henry IV. 1410. Hall, Distaff-lane.
28. PAINTERS-STAINERS.—Date of incorporation, 26 Elizabeth, 1582. Hall, Little Trinity-lane.
29. CURRIERS.—This society is of considerable antiquity, though not incorporated till 1605. Hall, at Cripplegate.
30. MASONS.—This company had a grant of arms in 1477, though not incorporated till 29 Charles II. 1677. Hall, Mason's-alley, Basinghall-street.
31. PLUMBERS.—Though this fraternity is of considerable standing, it was not incorporated till 9 James I. 1611. Hall, Chequer-yard, Dowgate-hill.
32. INNOLDERS.—Date of incorporation, 6 Henry VIII. 1515. Hall, Elbow-lane.
33. FOUNDERS.—Date of incorporation, 12 James I. 1614. All brass weights made in London, or three miles from it, must be sized with the company's standard, and have their mark; the avoirdupois to be sealed at Guildhall, and the troy at Goldsmith's-hall. And the company is empowered by charter to view and search all brass weights, and brass and copper ware made within the district. Hall, Lothbury.
34. POULTERERS.—Date of incorporation, 19 Henry VII. 1504. They have no hall.
35. COOKS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Edward IV. 1480. Hall, Aldersgate-street.
36. COOPERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Henry VII. 1501. By an act of parliament in the succeeding reign, they were empowered to search and gauge all beer, ale, and soap vessels, within the city of London, and two miles round the suburbs of the same; for which they were allowed one farthing for each cask. Hall, Basinghall-street.
37. TYLERS

37. TYLERS AND BRICKLAYERS.—Date of incorporation, 10 Elizabeth, 1568. Hall, in a court in Leadenhall-street.
38. BOWYERS.—This was a fraternity by prescription, till the 18th James I. 1620.; when it was incorporated. That the incorporating of this fraternity should be deferred to this time is somewhat surprising, though not so much as that of its being incorporated then, when the military engine called the bow, was almost rendered useless by the invention of fire-arms. They have at present no hall, though anciently they had one in Noble-street.
39. FLETCHERS.—This is only a company by prescription. Hall, St. Mary-Axe.
40. BLACKSMITHS.—This ancient guild or fraternity continued so by prescription till incorporated by queen Elizabeth in 1571. Hall on Lambert-hill.
41. JOINERS AND CEILERS.—Date of incorporation, 11 Elizabeth, 1569. Hall, Friar's-lane, Thames-street.
42. WEAVERS.—This fraternity seems to be the most ancient guild of this city; for it appears that in the reign of Henry I. they paid an annual rent of 16*l.* to the crown for their immunities. Their privileges were confirmed at Winchester, by letters patent of Henry II. still in the company's possession, but without date. Hall, Basinghall-street.
43. WOOLMEN.—Though this fraternity is of great antiquity, and probably coeval with the wool trade of this kingdom; yet it is only a community by prescription, and not by charter. However, it has the honour of being one of the city companies. They have neither livery nor hall.
44. SCRIVENERS.—Date of incorporation, 14 James I. 1616.
45. FRUITERERS.—Date of incorporation, 3 James I. 1605. They have no hall.
46. PLAISTERERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Henry VII. 1501. Hall, Addle-street.
47. STATIONERS.—Date of incorporation, 3 and 4 Philip and Mary, 1557. This company, which also includes Book-fellers, Letter-founders, Printers, and Bookbinders, have a stock which is employed in printing almanacks, primers, psalters, many school books, &c. of which they have the sole privilege, by virtue of a grant from the crown. They pay about 300*l.* a-year in pensions and other charities. Hall, Stationers'-court.
48. EMBROIDERERS.—Date of incorporation, 3 Elizabeth, 1591. Hall, Gutter-lane.

49. UPHOLDERS.—Date of incorporation, 2 Charles I. 1627.
No hall.
50. MUSICIANS.—Date of incorporation, 2 James I. 1604.
No hall.
51. TURNERS.—Date of incorporation, 2 James I. 1604.
Hall on College-hill.
52. BASKET-MAKERS.—This is a company by prescription, but when, or by whom erected into a fellowship, is unknown. They have neither livery nor hall.
53. GLAZIERS.—The glass-painters are incorporated with them, by charter 13 Charles I. 1637. Their hall was consumed in the great conflagration in 1666, since which time they have had none.
54. HORNERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Charles I. 1638.
They have neither livery nor hall.
55. FARRIERS.—Date of incorporation, 25 Charles II. 1673.
No hall.
56. PAVIOURS.—This is a fellowship by prescription, and not by charter; wherefore it may be justly presumed to have been one of the ancient adulterine guilds that were erected without a royal licence. They have neither livery nor hall.
57. LORIMERS.—Though this appears to be an ancient fraternity, yet they were only incorporated by letters patent of the 10th queen Anne, 1712. Hall, London-wall.
58. APOTHECARIES.—They are exempt from ward and parish offices, and have a spacious physic garden at Chelsea; which, in 1721, was granted to the company for ever, by Sir Hans Sloane, bart. the lord of the manor, on condition of their paying a quit-rent of 5*l.* and continuing it always as a physic garden, and of presenting every year to the Royal Society fifty samples of different sorts of plants there grown, till they amount to two thousand. Date of incorporation, 4 James I. 1606.
Hall, Blackfriars.
59. SHIPWRIGHTS.—This, which had been a society by prescription for divers ages, was incorporated 3 James I. 1605. They are without either livery or hall.
60. SPECTACLE-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 5 Charles I. 1630. Neither livery nor hall.
61. CLOCK MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1632. Neither livery nor hall.
62. GLOVERS.—Date of incorporation, 14 Charles I. 1638.
Hall, Beech-lane.

63. COMB-

63. COMB-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1636. Neither livery nor hall.
64. FELT-MAKERS.—The felt or hat-makers being anciently a branch of the company of Haberdashers; they applied in the year 1576 for an exclusive charter, but being opposed by the Haberdashers, their endeavours proved abortive; but all disputes at last being happily adjusted, they were incorporated 2 James I. 1604. They have no hall.
65. FRAME-WORK-KNITTERS.—Date of incorporation, 15 Charles II. Hall, Red-cross-street.
66. SILK-THROWERS.—The art of silk-throwing was first practised in London in the reign of queen Elizabeth, by foreigners, whose descendants and others, 1622, were constituted a fellowship of this city, and were incorporated 1630. They have neither hall nor livery.
67. SILKMEN.—Date of incorporation, 7 Charles I. 1631. Neither livery nor hall.
68. PIN-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 11 Charles I. 1636. Neither livery nor hall.
69. NEEDLE-MAKERS.—This society was incorporated by Oliver Cromwell, 1656. No hall.
70. GARDENERS.—Date of incorporation, 14 James I. 1616. Neither livery nor hall.
71. SOAP-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Charles I. 1638. They transact their business in Guildhall.
72. TIN-PLATE-WORKERS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Chas. II. 1670. Neither hall nor livery.
73. WHEELWRIGHTS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Charles II. 1670. Neither hall nor livery.
74. DISTILLERS.—Date of incorporation, 1638.
75. HATBAND MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Chas. I. 1638. Neither livery nor hall.
76. PATTEN-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Chas. II. 1670. No hall.
77. GLASS-SELLERS AND LOOKING-GLASS-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Charles II. 1664. No hall.
78. TOBACCO PIPE MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 15 Charles II. 1663. Neither livery nor hall.
79. COACH AND HARNESS-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1677. Hall, Noble-street.
80. GUNSMITHS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Charles I. 1638. Neither livery nor hall.
81. GOLD AND SILVER WIRE-DRAWERS.—Date of incorporation, 21 James I. 1623. Neither livery nor hall.
82. LONGBOW-STRING-MAKERS.—This is a company by prescription. Neither livery nor hall.

83. **CARD-MAKERS.**—Date of incorporation, 1629. Neither livery nor hall.
84. **FAN-MAKERS.**—Date of incorporation, 8 Anne, 1709. Neither livery nor hall.
85. **WOODMONGERS.**—This fraternity was incorporated with that of the Carmen of this city, by letters patent of the 3d James I. 1605, with whom they continued till the year 1668, when for their mal-practices, they judged it convenient (to avoid a greater punishment), to surrender their charter. By an act of common-council in 1694, they obtained a privilege for keeping one hundred and twenty carts (exclusive of the four hundred and twenty public ones kept by the carmen,) for the more effectual carrying on their business. This company, by an act of common council, had the management of the public carts committed to them, from 1661 to 1665, when by reason of their bad conduct, and sinister practices, the charge of inspection was returned to Christ's-hospital.
86. **STARCH-MAKERS.**—Date of incorporation, 1622, 20 James I. Neither hall nor livery.
87. **FISHERMEN.**—Date of incorporation, 3 James II. 1687. Neither livery, hall, nor arms.
88. **PARISH CLERKS.**—Date of incorporation, 17 Henry III. 1233. By a decree of the Star-chamber in 1625, they obtained a privilege to keep a press in their hall, for printing the weekly bills of mortality, by the person appointed by the archbishop of Canterbury. They are, by their charter, to make a report of all the weekly christenings and burials in their several parishes every Tuesday. Hall, Wood-street.
89. **THE CARMEN** are a fellowship by act of common-council, with the title of free Carmen of the city of London. Neither hall nor livery.
90. **THE PORTERS**—Consisting of tackle and ticket-porters, are another fellowship. Neither hall, livery, nor arms.
91. **THE WHERRYMEN AND LIGHTERMEN** of this city, and neighbouring places, were by act of parliament in the latter end of the reign of King William, constituted a society, to be under the direction of the court of lord mayor and aldermen. This society pay to their poor about 800*l.* per annum, which chiefly arises from the Sunday ferries.

Upon the whole, it appears, that the companies are ninety-one, and they have fifty-two halls.

WEST-

WESTMINSTER. A most important portion of the metropolis, and next in consideration to the city of London, is the city, or perhaps more properly, the borough of Westminster. This division of the metropolis is now so united with London, that in appearance, they form but one city; and in common speech they are mentioned only as one.

As the very existence of Westminster is derived from the foundation of the abbey, it is necessary here slightly to trace the circumstances by which they are connected, reserving for a subsequent page, a more particular description of that venerable structure.

The foundation of Westminster abbey, says Maitland in his History of London, has been handed to us by many fabulous accounts, invented by the monks for private views: one of their pious frauds was to palm it upon St. Peter, the prince of the apostles. This is the invention of Abbot Wulfine, in the reign of Edward the Confessor. Another refers it to the imaginary reign of king Lucius. In this uncertainty we can determine only to adhere to those writers who place its foundation by Sebert, on the ruins of a temple, dedicated by the heathen Saxons to Apollo. The place where this magnificent and stately structure and city are situate, was anciently an island; which, from its being overspread with thorns, received the appellation of Thorney, or island of Thorns; and the branch of the river which surrounded the same, now denominated Long-ditch, had its outflux from the river Thames, near the east-end of Manchester-court, Channel-row; and intersecting King-street, glided along where Gardiner's-lane is situate, to Long-ditch; and crossing Tothill-street, a little west of the gate-house, continued its course along the south wall of the Abbey garden, to the Thames, where now the common sewer is, which was erected over it.

This monastery, like most others of the kingdom, being destroyed by the cruel ravages and depredations of the Pagan Danes, was rebuilt by king Edgar, who not only endowed the same with divers lands and manors, but likewise, by his charter, Anno 969, granted it many ample privileges. This church being again reduced to very great extremities by Danish cruelties, it was restored to a much more flourishing condition than ever, by Edward the Confessor, who appropriated for that purpose one tenth of his estate, both real and personal; and pulling down the small and ruinous building, erected in its stead a handsome structure: then summoning his ministers and nobility, he caused it to be consecrated on the 28th of December, 1065, with the greatest pomp and solemnity; and by several charters, not only confirmed all its ancient rights and privileges,

but likewise endowed the same with many rich manors, and additional immunities, viz. *Sac and Soc, Thol and Theam, Infangtheof, Gritbrich, Hamsoken, Pontage, Murage and Forstal*. And that all the lands, tenements, and possessions thereunto belonging, in London and elsewhere, should be exempt from all jurisdiction whatsoever, other than that of their own; and the convent to be free from the authority of the bishop of London; and the church thereof, by the bull of Pope Nicholas the Second, constituted a place for the inauguration of the kings of England. And by the said Edward's charter of Sanctuary, it became not only an asylum for bankrupts, &c. but likewise a refuge for traitors, murderers, thieves, and the most abandoned miscreants, who were suffered to live there in impunity, and open defiance of justice, to the great reproach of the pretended confessor. However, the great immunities in the charter drew people from all parts; which occasioned the refugees to increase so fast, that there was not room sufficient in the Abbey church for the accommodation of the numerous inhabitants without incommoding the monks, wherefore Edward caused a church to be erected on the north side of the monastery, for the use of the inhabitants, and dedicated the same to Saint Margaret. The name of Westminster was not given, as some have supposed, to distinguish it from the Abbey of Grace on Tower-hill, called Eastminster: but from the church of Saint Paul in the city of London.

William the Conqueror, out of the great veneration he bore to the memory of his late dear friend Edward, no sooner arrived in London, than he repaired to this church, where he offered a sumptuous pall as a covering to his shrine, and fifty marks of silver, together with a very rich altar-cloth and two caskets of gold; and the Christmas-day following was solemnly crowned there. He was a great benefactor to this abbey, for, by no less than sixteen charters, he not only confirmed all their ancient rights and immunities, but also granted them greater privileges and additional revenues.

In 1257, Henry III. granted to the abbot and convent of Westminster a market and fair; and in 1352, Westminster was by act of parliament constituted one of the ten towns in England, where the staple, or market for wool, leather, woolfels, lead, and other staple commodities, should be perpetually held. Yet with all these instances of royal favour and protection, Westminster was nothing more than a small town entirely distinct from London. The Strand, which was the road leading from the one to the other, was open on either side to the Thames and to the fields. In 1385, this road was paved as far as the Savoy; and many years after Sir Robert Cecil build-
ing

ing a house at Ivy-bridge, his interest brought the pavement of the road to be extended thither, and many of the houses of the nobility were erected in the Strand.

At the general suppression of religious houses by Henry VIII. the abbey was surrendered to him, by William Benson, the abbot, and seventeen of the monks, on the 16th of January, 1539, at which time, it appeared to be near double the value any other religious foundation in the kingdom; for its annual revenues amounted to 3977*l.* 6*s.* 4³/₄*d.* The monastery thus dissolved, Henry erected it into a college of secular canons, under the government of a dean, and appointed William Benson, the last abbot, the first dean. But in the 37th year of his reign, an act was passed to authorize him, either by letters patent, or proclamations, to make it an honour, a title of distinction, which he was empowered by the same act to confer upon Kingston-upon-Hull, St. Osyth's in Essex, and Donnington in Berkshire; and he afterwards converted it into a bishopric, with a dean and twelve prebendaries, and appointed the whole county of Middlesex, except Fulham, which was still to belong to the bishopric of London, as its diocese; upon this occasion, Westminster became a city; it had many years before been the seat of the royal palace, the high court of parliament, and of our law tribunals; most of our sovereigns had been crowned, and had their sepulchres in the Abbey church, and the ancient palace being almost destroyed by fire, the last mentioned prince had here his palace of Whitehall, which he purchased of Cardinal Wolsey; he also built the palace of St. James, and inclosed a fine spot of ground, which he converted into a park, for the accommodation of both palaces; and this was no sooner finished, than he erected a stately gate near the banquetting-house, and added to it a magnificent gallery for the accommodation of the royal family, the nobility and gentry to sit in, in order to see the justings and other military exercises in the tilt-yard; and soon after the same prince erected a tennis-court, cock-pit, and places for bowling. From that time the buildings began to extend every way, but the palace was burned down soon after. It never had but one bishop, the see being translated to Norwich, by Edward VI., in the year 1550; though by courtesy, it has still retained the title of city.

The city of Westminster is comprized in the two, now united parishes of Saint Margaret and Saint John; besides which there are seven in the liberties, St. Martin's-in-the-fields, St. James's, St. Anne's, St. Clement Danes, St. Mary-le-Strand, St. George's, Hanover-square, and St. Paul's, Covent-garden, with the precinct of the Savoy.

ST. MAR.

ST. MARTIN'S-LE-GRAND. A portion of the liberties of Westminster, situated indeed within the limits of the city of London, is the precinct of Saint Martin's-le-grand. On this site was anciently a college, consisting of a dean and priests, or secular canons. It owed its origin to the piety of two brothers, Ingebricus and Edvardus, or Gerardus, our historians are undecided which, in the year 1056. Twelve years afterwards William of Normandy confirmed the foundation, by a charter, dated in the second year of his reign. This exempted the dean and canons from almost all ecclesiastical and temporal jurisdiction, and gave them the privilege of a sanctuary. All these immunities were confirmed and increased by several successors of the conqueror. Henry VII. conveyed to the abbot of the Abbey church of Westminster, the advowson of the deanery of Saint Martin's-le-grand, its canonries, prebends, churches, chapels, and all profits (except the prebend of New-londe, founded by Herbert). His successor, in the thirty-second year of his reign, granted it to the new see of Westminster, and two years afterwards to the dean and chapter. When Edward VI. dissolved the bishopric, he conveyed St. Martin's with the jurisdiction of the site and precinct to the bishop of London; but an act of parliament restored it to the dean and chapter, as the abbot and convent of Westminster had enjoyed it, their successors are still in possession of the site; but the church was taken down soon after 1548, and the place covered with buildings, long since perished, and succeeded by others, some few of which are respectable, but the generality of the meanest description. The dean and chapter hold a court, and have a prison, a steward, and attornies, for this precinct.

GOVERNMENT OF WESTMINSTER. Until the reformation, Westminster was under the arbitrary government of the abbot and monks; as it was afterwards under that of the bishop, and the dean and chapter; till settled by act of parliament, 27 Elizabeth, 1585, whereby the civil government is lodged in the hands of the laity; though the dean is impowered to nominate the chief officers. Westminster, with its liberties, being by the said authority divided into twelve wards, the dean or the high steward, or his deputy, are impowered yearly, on Easter-Thursdai, to elect twelve sufficient merchants or tradesmen to be nominated burgeses, with a like number of persons for their deputies, or assistants, to preside over the respective wards for one year, and so from year to year during life, good behaviour or residence in the city or liberties. They who refuse to serve as burgeses forfeit ten, deputies five pounds each. And the dean and his successors, the high steward, or his deputy,

puty, the two chief and other ten burgesſes, or any three, or four of them, (whereof the ſaid dean, high ſteward or his deputy, or one of the chief burgesſes, to be at all times one) are impowered to hear, examine, determine and puniſh according to the laws of the kingdom, or laudable and lawful custom of the city of London, all matters of incontinencies, common ſcolds, inmates and common nuiſances; and to commit all perſons to priſon that ſhall be guilty of a breach of the peace, of which they are to give notice to a juſtice or juſtices of the peace for the county of Middleſex, within the ſpace of twenty-four hours. The liberties or ſuburbs of Weſtmiſter, being greatly increaſed both in number of houſes and inhabitants, it was judged neceſſary to increaſe both the number of burgesſes and aſſiſtants from twelve to ſixteen each; which burgesſes, with their aſſiſtants, are by the ſaid act of parliament impowered to act in all reſpects as the aldermen's deputies of the city of London.

HIGH STEWARD. The high ſteward of Weſtmiſter attended by the burgesſes, acts as ſheriff, by preſiding at the Court Leet, and as chairman at the Quarter Sessions. But this officer ſeldom officiating, leaves the management of affairs to his deputy, who, being a perſon well verſed in the laws of the kingdom, is appointed by him, and confirmed by the dean, and generally holds his office during life, or the government of his patron.

HIGH BAILIFF. The next officer in dignity is the high bailiff, who is likewiſe choſen by the dean for life. This officer in ſome meaſure alſo represents a ſheriff; for he ſummon juries, manages elections for members of parliament, has the ſeveral bailiffs of Weſtmiſter ſubordinate to him; and all fines and forfeitures.

OTHER OFFICERS. The remaining officers are the chief burgesſes, burgesſes and their aſſiſtants; the town-clerk, aſſerer and crier.

ARMS. The arms of Weſtmiſter, granted 1ſt of October, 1601, are; in a ſhield *azure* a portcullis, *or*, on a chief of the ſecond, the arms of Edward the Confessor, between the united roſes of Lancaſter and York.

SOUTHWARK. This borough, which forms another great diviſion of the metropolis, is already deſcribed in Vol. I. p. 101.

THE THAMES. In conſidering the local particulars which diſtinguiſh the Britiſh metropolis, it is of the higheſt importance to notice this noble river; the glory and pride of the empire, the wonder and envy of foreigners.

The Thames has its career nearly weſt for about ſeventy-two miles,

miles between the counties of Kent and Essex, and Surry and Middlesex. The first twenty miles is by an exceeding wide estuary; the next twenty-one miles is still an estuary of considerable width; the remaining thirty-one miles is crooked, and gradually diminishing: the tide flows very powerfully through its whole length. At East Mersey it connects with the Colne river; at West Mersey with Blackwater river; at Foulness east point with Crouch river; at Whitstable and Sheerness with the Medway river; at Graveland with the Thames and Medway canal; opposite to Purfleet with the Darent river, or Dartfort-creek; at Bow-creek with the Lea river; at Blackwall and at Limehouse-hole with the Isle of Dogs canal (a new side-cut for shortening the navigation of this river); at Greenland-dock, and at Wilkinson's gun wharf, Rotherhithe, with the Grand Surry canal; and at Limehouse with the Limehouse canal. Large ships of war can come up to Deptford, and merchants' ships of 7 to 800 tons burthen frequently lie at the quays close to London bridge. The port of London, or part wherein the ships lie, generally called the pool, extends almost four miles, nearly to Deptford, in which space more than 1000 vessels have been seen moored at one time. The rapidly increasing trade of this grand emporium of commerce, the regulations which have of late been made, for mooring the ships at more convenient distances, for a passage up and down the river, and the contiguity of the West India and East India docks to Blackwall, are expected ere long, to extend the tiers of ships as far as that place. It was stated in 1800, that the trade of the port of London had increased in the last or eighteenth century, by 6547 vessels and 1,327,763 tons annually; and that (including repeated voyages), 13,144 ships and vessels were then employed in this trade, to foreign countries, the colonies, and coastwise, besides 2288 lighters, barge-, and punts, employed in the middle part of the Thames, and on the Lea river; and 3336 of the like kinds of vessels used below bridge, in the lading and discharging of vessels, together with 83 boats, sloops, cutters, and hoys, 3000 watermen's wherries, 155 bum-boats, and 194 peter-boats, the total number (exclusive of ships of war, transports, and navy and victualling, and ordnance hoys), being 22,500 vessels of various sizes and dimensions, either trading to, or stationed within the pool or port of London: the total value of the goods imported and exported annually by them exceeding 67,000,000*l*.

The corporation of the city of London, as conservators of the Thames, have executed considerable works for the improvement of the river: several mooring chains in the pool have been purchased of lord Gwydir and others, and a harbour-master,

master, approved by the Trinity-house, is appointed to regulate the mooring and conduct of vessels, agreeable to the 19, 29, and 39 of George III.; one of the largest canals ever attempted has been cut, near $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in length, 142 feet wide at top, and 24 feet deep! across the Isle of Dogs, for shortening the passage of vessels to and from the pool, and to avoid the long circuit by Greenwich and Deptford. Several large sums of public money have been granted out of the consolidated fund; for the repayment of which, vessels passing through this canal, of 200 tons or upwards, are to pay 2*d.* per ton; those from 200 to 100 tons, $1\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per ton; from 100 to 50 tons, 1*d.* per ton; 50 to 20 tons, 5*s.* each; and boats and craft 1*s.* each. Two or more piers are intended to be built at the entrance, for facilitating the entrance of vessels to this canal. Between this canal and the entrance of the East India docks, there is a large mass of silicious pudding-stone, consisting of chert pebbles imbedded in a very hard cement, which lies in the bed of the river, and has proved fatal to several ships, on which account the committee, in September 1802, and on several other occasions, advertised for persons who would undertake to lower this rock 18 feet, its length being about 40, and breadth 30 feet.

The Thames river, below London, is embanked through a great part of its course; the time when these banks were first erected is uncertain, but they appear to be of great antiquity; and during several hours of each tide the adjoining meadows are ten feet or more below the level of the water. At Dagenham, about seven miles below Blackwall, a large breach in one of these banks happened, which Capt. John Perry succeeded in stopping, after several others had failed in their attempts.

Thus far description relates entirely to that portion of the Thames which is devoted to commerce. Of the residue the following animated account is extracted from the work of Mr. Pennant on the Metropolis. "I should speak, he says, with the prejudices of a true Englishman, was I to dignify the Thames with the title of the chief of rivers. I must qualify my patriotism with its just claim to that of first of island rivers. But in respect to our rival kingdom, it must yield the palm to the Garonne; only we must not make comparison of its length of course. The contracted space of our island must limit that species of grandeur, but there are none, in any part of Europe, which can boast of more utility in bringing farther from the ocean the largest commercial ships; nor are there any which can bring the riches of the universe to their very capital. The ships of the Seine discharge themselves at Havre; those of the Loire reach no farther than Port Lannai, far below its emporium, Nantes;

Nantes; and the Garonne conveys no farther than Pouillac the full loaden ships; they are obliged to be eased of part of their cargoes before they can reach the opulent Bourdeaux*.

The Thames rises beneath Sufferton-hill, just within the borders of Gloucestershire, a little to the south-west of Cirencester, which it instantly quits, and enters for a short space into the county of Wilts, bends a little into it, and re-enters its parent province near Lechlade, where (by means of locks) it first becomes navigable, and, as it is said, for barges of seventy tons. It here leaves Gloucestershire, and becomes the whole southern boundary of Oxfordshire, or the northern of Berkshire, and from thence is the southern limit of Buckinghamshire. Boulter's lock, above Maidenhead, in the same county, is the last lock; from thence to the sea it requires no farther art to aid its navigation. At a small distance from Windsor-bridge it divides Berkshire from Buckinghamshire; and at a small distance from Staines-bridge it divides Middlesex from Surrey. Just above Kingston it feels the last feeble efforts of a tide; from thence is a most important increase: just below London bridge eighteen feet; and at Deptford twenty. This noble river continues fresh as low as Woolwich, and even there is brackish only at spring tides. Thus at our capital it is perfectly pure, salubrious, and subservient to vast articles of commerce, with which that stupendous city abounds. The whole course of the Thames, to its mouth, is considerably above two hundred miles; contracting its length very considerably, in comparison of the usual estimation, and limiting its mouth to the spot between the west-end of the isle of Grain, in Kent, and the eastern part of that of Canvey, in Essex. From those places to the Naze in the latter county, and the North Fore-

* The following comparative statement of the length of the Thames in relation to that of other rivers, is extracted from Major Kennel's Memoir on a Map of Hindostan.

"The proportional lengths of course of some of the most noted rivers in the world are shewn nearly by the following numbers:

EUROPEAN RIVERS.			
Thames	1	Jennisea	10
Rhine	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	Oby	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Danube	7	Amoor	11
Volga	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	Lena	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
		Hoanho (of China)	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
		Kian Kew (of ditto)	15 $\frac{1}{2}$
ASIATIC RIVERS.		AFRICAN RIVERS.	
Indus (probably)	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	Nile	12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Euphrates	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	AMERICAN RIVERS.	
Ganges	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	Mississippi	8
Nou Kian, or Ava river	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	Amazons	15 $\frac{3}{4}$
Butrampoote	9 $\frac{1}{8}$		land

land in that of Kent (which have hitherto been considered as its entrance), it ceases to flow in a single channel; it becomes a vast estuary filled with sand-banks, many of which appear above water at the recesses of the tides.

The whole course of the river is through a country which furnishes every idea of opulence, fertility, and rural elegance: meadows rich in hay, or covered with numerous herds; gentle risings, and hanging woods; embellished with palaces, magnificent seats or beautiful villas, a few the hereditary mansions of our ancient gentry, but the greater part property transferred by the effects of vice and dissipation, to the owners of honest wealth acquired by commerce or industrious professions, or the dear purchase of cankering rapine. Its course furnishes few sublime scenes, excepting the high chalky cliffs near Henley; all its banks are replete with native softness, improved by art and the fullest cultivation. It does not flow in any part over a rocky channel; its bottom is either gravelly or clayey, according to the nature of the soil through which it meanders. This gives growth to the abundance of weeds with which it is in many parts filled; and these prove the safety of multitudes of fishes, and preserve them from being extirpated by the unbridled ravages of the poachers. The Thames has, between its source and Woolwich, every species found in the British rivers, except the burbot, the loche, the *cobitis tænia* or spiny loche, of late years discovered in the river Trent, and the small species of salmon, the samlet. The salmon and the shad are fishes of passage; the first appears in the river about the middle of February, is in great estimation, and sells at a vast price; their capture is prohibited from the 24th of August to the 11th of November. The shad arrives the latter end of May or beginning of June, and is a very coarse fish; it sometimes grows to the weight of eight pounds, but the usual size is from four to five. The lesser lamprey, the *Petromyzon fluviatilis* of Linnæus, is a small fish of great and national importance, and is taken in amazing quantities between Battersea reach and Taplow mills (a space of about fifty miles), and sold to the Dutch for the cod and other fisheries; 450,000 have been sold in one season for that purpose; the price has been 40s. the thousand: this year the Dutch have given 3*l.* and the English from 5*l.* to 8*l.*; the former having prudently contracted for three years, at a certain price. Formerly the Thames has furnished from a million to twelve hundred thousand annually. The fish of the Thames which come as low as London bridge, and beyond it as far as the river is fresh, are a few roach and dace; bleak in great plenty, and eels extend far down the river; small flounders are found as far as Fulham, brought up by the tides, and
continue

continue stationary. The barbel is never seen below London bridge. Several of the lesser species of whales have been known to stray up the Thames; a kind of grampus with a high dorsal fin has been taken within the mouth of the river. A species allied to the delphinus, delphis, or dolphin, twenty-one feet long, was taken in 1783, above London bridge; and the common porpusses frequently run up the Thames in numbers, and afford an eager diversion to the watermen.

Having thus generally described the Thames, it remains only to notice the bridges thrown over it for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the metropolis, and the prodigious docks which have been recently formed for the security and facility of commerce.

LONDON BRIDGE. This structure claims priority of notice from its antiquity, and from the connexion it establishes between the city of London and its appendage the borough of Southwark. The year of its foundation is not settled. The first mention of it is in the laws of Etheldred, which fix the tolls of vessels coming to Billingsgate, or *ad Pontem*. It could not be prior to the year 993, when Unlaff, the Dane, sailed up the river as high as Staines, without interruption; nor yet after the year 1016, in which Ethelred died: and the great Canute, king of Denmark, when he besieged London, was impeded in his operations by a bridge, which even at that time must have been strongly fortified, to oblige him to have recourse to the following vast expedient: he caused a prodigious ditch to be cut on the south side of the Thames at Rotherhithe, or Redriff, a little to the east of Southwark, which he continued at a distance from the south end of the bridge, in form of a semi-circle, opening into the western part of the river. Through this he drew his ships, and effectually compleated the blockade of the city; but the valour of the citizens obliged him to raise the siege. Evidences of this great work were found in the place called the Dock-head at Redriff, where it began. Fascines of hazles and other brushwood, fastened down with stakes, were discovered in digging that dock in 1694; and in other parts of its course have been met with, in ditching, large oaken planks and numbers of piles.

The bridge originated from the public spirit of the College of Priests of St. Marie Overie. Before, there had been a ferry, left by her parents to their only daughter Mary; who, out of the profits founded a nunnery, and endowed it with the profits of the boat. This house was afterwards converted into the College of Priests, who not only built the bridge, but kept it in repair: but it must be understood, that the first bridge was of timber, the materials at hand, and most probably rudely put together.

together. This account is given by Stow, from the report of Bartholomew Linsted, alias Fowle, last prior of St. Marie Overie; but was doubted, because the work has been supposed to be too great and too disinterested for a college of priests, who were to give up the certain profits of the ferry for those resulting precariously from an expensive undertaking. Even the existence of a religious house before the conquest has been suspected; but the Domesday Book puts that out of doubt, by informing us, *Ipse episcopus habet unum monasterium in Sudwerche*. Numbers of useful as well as pious works, in early days, originated from the instigation of the churchmen, who often had the honour of being called the founders, when the work itself was performed by their devotees. Neither is it to be supposed that they could keep it in repair: the same zeal which impelled people to contribute to the building, operated in the vestiture of land for its future support; and this appears to have been done in several instances; yet the endowments were so small, that a supplementary tax was often raised.

In 1136, the bridge was burned down. By the year 1163, it grew so ruinous as to occasion its being rebuilt, under the care of one Peter, curate of St. Mary Colechurch, a celebrated architect of those times. It was soon afterwards determined to build a bridge of stone, and about the year 1176, the same Peter was employed again. It proved a work of thirty-three years; the architect died four years before it was completed; and another clergyman, Isenbert, master of the schools of Xainctes, was recommended to the citizens by king John, for the honour of finishing it; but they rejected their prince's choice, and committed the work to three merchants of London, who completed it in 1209. Peter was buried in a beautiful chapel, probably of his own construction, dedicated to St. Thomas, which stood on the east side, in the ninth pier from the north end, and had an entrance from the river as well as the street, by a winding stair-case. It was beautifully paved with black and white marble, and in the middle was a tomb, supposed to contain the remains of Peter the architect.

This great work was founded on enormous piles, driven as closely as possible together; on their tops were laid long planks ten inches thick, strongly bolted; and on them was placed the base of the pier, the lowermost stones of which were bedded in pitch, to prevent the water from damaging the work: round all were the piles which are called the sterlings, designed for the preservation of the foundation piles. These contracted the space between the piers so greatly, as to occasion, at the retreat of every tide, a fall of five feet, or a number of temporary cataracts, which, since the foundation of the bridge, have occa-

sioned the loss of many thousand lives. The water at spring tides rises to the height of about eighteen feet. The length of this vast work is 915 feet, the exact breadth of the river. The number of arches was nineteen, of unequal dimensions, and greatly deformed by the sterlings, and the houses on each side, which overhung and leaned in a most terrific manner. In most places they hid the arches, and nothing appeared but the rude piers. The street on London bridge was narrow, darksome, and dangerous to passengers from the multitude of carriages; frequent arches of strong timber crossed the street from the tops of the houses, to keep them together, and from falling into the river. Nothing but use could preserve the rest of the inmates, who soon grew deaf to the noise of the falling waters, the clamours of watermen, and the frequent shrieks of drowning wretches. Most of the houses were tenanted by pin or needle-makers, and economical ladies were wont to drive from the St. James's end of the town to make cheap purchases. Fuller tells us, that Spanish needles were made here first in Cheapside by a negro, who died without communicating the art. Elias Crowse, a German, in the reign of Elizabeth, was more liberal, and first taught the method to the English. Fuller's definition of a needle is excellent, *quasi* NE IDLE.

In the bridge were three openings on each side, with ballustrades, to give passengers a sight of the water and shipping. In one part had been a draw-bridge, useful either by way of defence or for the admission of ships into the upper part of the river. This was protected by a strong tower. It served to repulse Fauconbridge, the bastard, in his general assault on the city, in 1471, with a set of banditti, under pretence of rescuing the unfortunate Henry, then confined in the Tower. Sixty houses were burnt on the bridge on the occasion. It also served to check, and in the end annihilate, the ill conducted insurrection of Sir Thomas Wyatt, in the reign of queen Mary. The top of this tower, in the sad and turbulent days of this kingdom, used to be the shambles of human flesh, and covered with heads or quarters of unfortunate partizans. Even so late as the year 1598, Hentzner, the German traveller, with German accuracy, counted on it about thirty heads. The old map of the city in 1597, represents them in a most horrible cluster.

At the north end of the bridge, one Peter Corbes, a Dutchman, in the year 1582, invented and placed an engine to force the water of the Thames into leaden pipes, to supply many of the adjacent parts of the city. It has since that time been so greatly improved, by the skill of the English mechanics, as to become

become a most curious as well as useful piece of machinery, and to be extremely worthy the attention of persons professing that branch of science. On this bridge an unparalleled calamity happened, within four years after it was finished. A fire began on it at the Southwark end; multitudes of people rushed out of London to extinguish it; while they were engaged in this charitable design, the fire seized on the opposite end, and hemmed in the crowd. Above 3000 persons perished in the flames, or were drowned by overloading the vessels which were hardy enough to attempt their relief.

WESTMINSTER BRIDGE. The first petition for a new bridge was presented to the House of Commons, December 15, 1721, by the inhabitants and parts adjacent; and another from the counties of Kent, Sussex, Surrey, and Southampton; and a bill was passed in pursuance of the tenor of the request, but not without considerable opposition. Mr. Charles Labelye, a native of Switzerland, but a naturalized subject of England, was the architect employed for this great undertaking. He was highly esteemed for his probity and honour, and grateful for the attentions he ever received in England, felt proud in the name of an adopted Briton; but finding our climate prejudicial to his health, he was under the necessity of retiring to the more congenial air of France, in the capital of which country he resided for several years, and died there in 1762, at an advanced age. The French government were fully acquainted with his skill; but they never could prevail on him to undertake any of the works at Cherbourg, or elsewhere, which he conceived would be injurious to England. The ballast-men of the Trinity-house commenced the operations, by digging five feet below the bed of the river, in order to obtain a certain foundation. When this was accomplished, a huge boat or well, formed of oak, caulked to the exclusion of every drop of the surrounding element, was moored directly over the foundation of the intended first pier, where it was fixed immoveably, by piles driven close to the sides. As this machine floated exactly in the manner of a lighter or boat, any given weight would operate on it as the loading in a ship; which being placed gradually, and with the strictest attention to the equilibrium of every part, carries her down into the water equally till she is filled. It was thus with the western middle pier, the first stone of which was laid by the earl of Pembroke, January 29, 1738-9, in the machine, and on its bottom. The workmen then proceeded, gradually sinking with each day's labour, till the weight of stone had rivetted the pier to the native earth over which the Thames glides; when the boat or machine was taken to pieces, and the pier made its appearance

completed. The wooden bottom necessarily remains between the stones and the earth; and by this simple contrivance the whole foundation was effected, but at various depths. Every precaution had been adopted to render the construction everlasting, by building the piers perfectly solid, and uniting the vast blocks of Portland stone by strong bars of iron, let into each from its neighbour, and cemented by liquid lead, which will prevent a possibility of corrosion. On the 20th of April, 1739, the pier was completed, probably to high-water-mark; and about the same time the houses in New Palace-yard and King-street, which were to be removed for the intended way to the bridge, were valued by twelve men of the city and liberties. In May 1742, the House of Commons granted the sum of 20,000*l.* for this noble bridge; and on the 13th of July following a perpetuity was passed to Sir Joseph Ayloffe and Thomas Lidiard, their heirs and successors for ever, to hold in free and common socage the crown lands from Westminster-bridge to Charing-crofs, in trust for the commissioners of the new bridge. In 1743, 15,000*l.* were granted for the works by parliament. In the following year a machine invented by a person named King, for cutting the piles off close to the bottom, was tried, -and one severed in four minutes. One hundred and thirty-one houses are said to have been taken down in 1748, in order to make the approach to the bridge what it now is; by which year one of the piers was discovered to rest on an insecure foundation. The arch from it was immediately removed, and articles weighing 12,000 tons were placed on it, which caused a sinking of five inches. This circumstance led to an examination of the texture of the soil beneath it, which was found to be very far from solid for several feet in depth. In this unpleasant dilemma the architect had the pier taken up below low-water-mark, and turned an arch over it from two abutments. The whole was at length completed, and the commissioners gave public notice of the day when they intended to open it for use. That day was, by some strange oversight, fixed for Sunday, November 18th, 1750. Sensible of their error, they endeavoured to revoke the notice; but as that was found to be impracticable, they adopted the curious expedient of performing the ceremony at midnight. The flambeaux illumined the air, which resounded with drums, trumpets, and cannon, and with the shouts of the populace, who rushed in mighty crowds from each shore, during all the succeeding and many ensuing days. The whole expence of this magnificent national structure was raised by the voluntary tax of lotteries, and amounted to 389,500*l.* The length is said to be 223 feet, and the breadth 44, allowing seven feet to each

each foot-way, and thirty for the carriage-way. There are fourteen piers and fifteen arches, all of which are semicircles. The centre is 76 feet in width, each adjoining, 72; the decrease of the others is in a gradation of four feet, making the two last large ones fifty-two feet; those in the abutments are about twenty feet in width. The middle piers are seventeen feet broad, and there is a decrease of one foot in each till the last is twelve feet at the spring of the arch.

The arch turned over the defective pier was recommended by Dr. Stukeley, and a plan of it laid before the Royal Society. He calls it an interlaced arch. An examination of it takes place every seventh year. An intelligent gentleman, who went into the cavity, thus describes it: "The flat space on which you stand is the centre of the pier. On each hand are the rising crowns of the two arches, resting on this pier, which is the fifth from the Westminster shore. And about eighteen feet above where you stand is the crown, or soffit of the great arch, rising from the centre of the adjoining two, and carrying this bridge from the fourth to the sixth pier; so that by this arch of Dr. Stukeley's the fifth may be removed, and not injure the bridge in any degree. The hexagonal angles of the two ends of this chamber, which is fifteen yards wide, are also hollow, and indeed it is in the south angle or recess in which the ladder is fixed to descend, near the bottom of which is a small opening, to permit fresh air to pass through the chamber to ventilate its ponderous walls and roof."

BLACKFRIAR'S BRIDGE. When there were draw-bridges upon London bridge, ships of a certain size used to pass and discharge their cargoes in the mouth of the Fleet. The end of Blackfriar's bridge now fills the filthy mouth of Fleet-ditch. This elegant structure was built after the design of Mr. Robert Mylne. It consists of nine arches, the centre of which is a hundred feet wide. The whole length 995 feet, the breadth of the carriage way twenty-eight feet; of the two foot-ways seven each. Over each pier is a recess, an apology for the beautiful pairs of *Ionic* pillars which support them. The effect of this singular application of columns is beautiful from the river. The equinoctial tides rise here to the height of eighteen or twenty feet. The first stone of this bridge was laid October 30th, 1760, and it was completed about the latter end of the year 1768, at the expence of 152,840*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* The *Fleet*, a small river whose waters swelled by Turnmill and Oldbourne brooks, formerly flowed in a valley, which may be very readily traced from the Thames to Battle-bridge, near the Small-pox hospital. But now we have lost every thing but the names of Oldbourne and Turnmill; and the Fleet exists

only under a fewer. After repeated complaints of the increasing nuisance arising from this stream, and which was destructive not only of comfort, but of health, the Corporation of London obtained an act of parliament (which vested the grounds in their hands) to fill it up. This was done about the year 1736. The expence of the undertaking, making the vast arch that now carries off the water, and erecting the market, amounted to 10,256*l.* 17*s.*

Docks. Until within these few years all the loading and unloading of shipping was carried on in the open river, which, from the vast increase of the trade of this port was become insufficient in extent for these purposes. When large fleets arrived, much damage was frequently sustained by the shipping, and the small number and confined situation of the quays rendered long delays unavoidable. Besides this the whole of the cargoes while on board or unloading were compleatly at the mercy of men whose chief income consisted in pilferage, and who carried this system to an intolerable pitch. The only watch that government had over those goods which paid duties was by means of an officer, whose income probably from government did not exceed 50*l.* per annum, and whom a small temptation could easily bring over to wink at, or participate in the theft and smuggling which were daily carried on. Even after the goods (as sugars) were warehoused, it was seldom the hogheads did not come out from a quarter to half a hundred weight lighter than they went in, which the warehouse-keepers ascribed to the sampling and draining of the casks. As but few of the heavy ships could come to the quay to unload, the goods were put into lighters, where they were at the mercy of the lightermen and their servants; and this was another cause, and afforded ample opportunity for smuggling. By all these means the proprietors of the goods, who, in the case of West-India produce, were abroad and obliged to leave the care of their crops to their agents here, were robbed of their property, government was defrauded of revenue, and thus the load of taxes laid heavier upon the quantity which remained to tax, and from this cause the goods went dearer into market.

After frequent meetings of the merchants upon the above subject, application was made to parliament respecting it, and a committee appointed by the House to examine into the best means of redressing the grievances complained of. This committee having received ample evidence of the necessity of increased accommodation to the port, proceeded to examine the different plans laid before them, and reported to the House
upon

upon their opinion of the merits of each. Mr. Pitt, then prime minister, paid particular attention to the subject, went down and inspected the grounds which were proposed as the situations for the Docks, that he might make himself master of the subject, and make up his opinions by ocular demonstration of the assertions which were made by the favourers of the different plans.

The principal West-India merchants at last resolved to bring in a bill for making Docks in the Isle of Dogs, for the accommodation of the West-India trade alone, while a bill was by another body of merchants brought in for making Docks in Wapping, for the relief of the general trade of the port.

The West-India Dock bill, which includes the canal in the Isle of Dogs, was passed into an act in the session of 1799, and the Wapping or London Dock bill in 1800.

WEST-INDIA DOCKS. The fund for executing these works was raised by the subscription of private individuals. The proprietors are repaid an interest not to exceed ten per cent. by a rate or charge upon all the shipping and merchandize entering the dock, and the trade of the company has hitherto enabled them to pay that dividend. By the act, all West-India produce coming to the port of London must be unloaded in these docks. The present capital of the company is 1,100,000*l*. The plan comprehends two docks, one for unloading the ships arrived from the West-Indies, containing thirty acres, and capable of accommodating 300 West-Indiamen, and the other for loading outward-bound ships, containing twenty-four acres, and capable of containing upwards of 200 West-Indiamen. The former was begun February 3d, 1800, and opened the 27th of August, 1802, being only two years and a half, and it is surrounded by extensive ranges of warehouses, capable of accommodating the whole of the West-India trade, in which warehouses the goods are lodged until the duty is paid. The dock of twenty-four acres was completed and opened in 1805.

The depth of water in the dock is twenty-three feet, and its bottom five feet under low water in the river. The business of the company is conducted by twenty-one directors, of whom thirteen are chosen from among the proprietors, and the remaining eight are members of and appointed by the corporation of the city of London.

These docks are formed across the narrowest part of the Isle of Dogs, which is formed by a circuitous course the river takes, leaving this almost a peninsula, so that the docks communicate with the river at both extremities of the island. The soil was besides very favourable for the purpose of making docks, for the whole of this ground has been gained by embanking from the

the river, and the marsh, before it was begun to be cut, was from six to seven feet under the level of high water, so that the ground which was cut out from the docks was all wanted for making up the quays.

The Canal to the southward of the West-India docks is intended to enable ships to avoid the circuitous navigation of the Isle of Dogs, by which a distance of several miles will be saved. The expence of making it is paid from the consolidated fund of the nation, and will be repaid by a small tax upon all shipping coming to the port: 180,000*l.* have already been granted for making it. The management of it is committed to a committee of the corporation of the city of London.

THE LONDON DOCKS. The fund by which they were executed was raised in the same way as that of the West-India docks, and its proprietors will be repaid in the same manner. The first stone of the works was laid June 26th, 1802, and the dock of twenty acres was opened January 31, 1805. Another large dock of fourteen acres is proposed to be made in Shadwell to communicate with that already finished. Extensive warehouses are completed upon the north quay of the dock, and also a large tobacco warehouse. The immense number of houses which have been taken down for the purpose of making this dock have much increased the expence of the execution. The capital of the company at present is 2,200,000*l.* The great trade of the company comes in the general traffic of the port; the tobacco warehouse alone covers four acres of ground, and government pay the company 15,600*l.* annually as rent for it. The business is conducted by twenty-four directors chosen from among the proprietors, together with the lord-mayor of the city of London for the time being.

EAST-INDIA DOCKS. In the year 1803, the principal proprietors of East-India shipping seeing the salutary effects derived from the West-India docks, came to a resolution of following the example by having docks made for the accommodation of East-India shipping, and for the security of the goods brought home by them, which the state of the river and the abuses practised had rendered highly necessary. Having carried a bill through the House for these purposes, and opened a subscription to the amount of 300,000*l.*; and the directors who were appointed made purchase of the Brunswick dock at Blackwall, with a view of converting it into a dock for loading the outward-bound shipping. The dock which received its name in honour of the present race of monarchs, was begun and executed by Mr. Perry, from his private fortune, and affords an ample proof of his enterprizing public spirit. In addition to this the East-India Dock company have executed a large dock of eighteen acres,

acres, for the purpose of unloading the homeward-bound ships with a commodious basin and embasures to it. This great dock was begun in the end of 1803, and the whole of the works were completed in 1806. All East-India produce coming to this port must be unloaded in these docks. The business is conducted by thirteen directors of the East-India company.

COMMERCIAL ROAD. For the purpose of opening an easy communication between the city of London and the different docks, a very commodious road called the Commercial Road, has been made from a fund raised in the same way as those of the different docks. The road is seventy feet wide, and in the centre of it is a strong pavement of twenty feet in width. The management is committed to thirteen trustees, who are empowered to raise a sum of 120,000*l.* for making and paving it. The distance from the Royal Exchange in London to the West-India dock gate is three miles, and to the East-India dock gate three miles and a half.

In the digging of the East and West-India docks, a very thick stratum of decayed vegetables or peat was found spread over the soil, about six feet under the surface, in which nuts, leaves, branches of trees, &c. of different species were found almost in an entire state. In the East-India docks a very fine elephant's tooth was picked up near the bottom of the dock; and in the West-India docks a very large deer's horn nearly at the same depth.

To the surprize of thinking men, all these great undertakings were begun and carried on during a long and expensive war; they display to great advantage the spirit and enterprize of the merchants of this nation.

PLACES OF WORSHIP. The following enumeration of places of worship in the metropolis is made by Mr. Colquhoun, in his *Treatise on the Police*.

OF THE ESTABLISHED RELIGION - -	{	1	Cathedral, dedicated to St. Paul.
		1	Abbey church of St. Peter, Westminster.
		120	Parish churches.
		120	Chapels and chapels of ease.

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MEETING-HOUSES FOR DISSENTERS - - -	}	150	{	Consisting of chapels for Methodists, Nonconformists, Presbyterians, Independents, Anabaptists, Quakers, and English Roman Catholics.

CHAPELS

CHAPELS AND MEETING- HOUSES FOR FOREIGN- ERS - - - - -	} 30	{ Consisting of chapels for French, German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, and Hel- vetic Protestants, for Fo- reign Roman Catholics, and those of the Russian or Greek church.
SYNAGOGUES - - - - -	6	For the Jewish religion.
Total about 428		Places of public worship.

PUBLIC EDIFICES. As it is not intended in this place to return to the subject of religion, already treated at much length in a preceding volume, the Cathedral and Abbey will be described as part of a number of public buildings, which are to be noticed in the metropolis.

ST. PAUL'S. The description of this beautiful and celebrated cathedral is taken chiefly from Pennant, with some additions from the minute and laborious work of Mr. Malcolm, to which the reader is referred for much curious information. "The best authority," Mr. Pennant says, "for the origin of this church, is its great restorer, Sir Christopher Wren. His opinion, that there had been a church upon this spot, built by the Christians in the time of the Romans, was confirmed: when he searched for the foundations for his own design, he met with those of the original *Presbyterium*, or semicircular chancel of the old church. They consisted only of Kentish rubble-stone, artfully worked and consolidated with exceeding hard mortar, in the Roman manner, much excelling the super-structure. He explodes the notion of there having been here a temple of Diana, and the discovery of the horns of animals used in the sacrifices to that goddess, on which the opinion had been founded, no such having been discovered in all his searches. In digging the foundation for the rebuilding St. Paul's was found a vast cemetery: first lay the Saxons in graves lined with chalk stones, or in coffins of hollowed stones; beneath them had been the bodies of the Britons placed in rows. Abundance of ivory and boxen pins, about six inches long, marked their place. These were supposed to have fastened the shrouds in which the bodies were wrapped. These perishing, left the pins entire. In the same row, but deeper, were Roman urns intermixed, lamps, lacrymatories, fragments of sacrificial vessels were also discovered in digging towards the north-east corner; and in 1675, not far from the east corner, at a considerable depth, beneath some flinty pavement, were found numbers of vessels of earthen ware, and of glass, of most exquisite colours and beauty, some inscribed

inscribed with the names of deities, heroes, or men of rank. Others ornamented with variety of figures in bas-relief, of animals and of rose trees. *Tesserule* of jasper, porphyry, or marble, such as form the pavement we so often see, were also discovered. Also glass beads and rings, large pins of ivory and bone, tusks of boars and horns of deer sawn through. Also coins of different emperors, among them some of Constantine, which at once destroys the conjecture of Mr. Maitland, who supposes that this collection were flung together at the sacking of London by our injured Boadicea.

“ The first church is supposed to have been destroyed in the Dioclesian persecution, and to have been rebuilt in the reign of Constantine. This was again demolished by the pagan Saxons, and restored in 603, by Sebert, a petty prince, ruling in these parts under Ethelbert, king of Kent, the first Christian monarch of the Saxon race, who, at the instance of St. Augustine, appointed Melitus the first bishop of London. Erkenwald, the son of king Offa, fourth in succession from Melitus, ornamented his cathedral very highly, and improved the revenues with his own patrimony. He was most deservedly canonized; for the very litter in which he was carried in his last illness, continued many centuries to cure fevers by the touch; and the very chips carried to the sick restored them to health.

“ When the city of London was destroyed by fire in 1086, this church was burnt; the bishop Mauritius began to rebuild it, and laid the foundations, which remained till its second destruction from the same cause, in the seventeenth century. Notwithstanding Mauritius lived twenty years after he had begun this pious work, and bishop Beaumes or Belmeis, enjoyed the see twenty more, yet such was the grandeur of the design, that it remained unfinished. The first had the ruins of the Palatine tower bestowed on him, as materials for the building; and Henry I. bestowed on the same prelate part of the ditch belonging to the Tower, which, with purchases made by himself, enabled him to inclose the whole with a wall. The same monarch granted besides, that every ship which brought stone for the church, should be exempted from toll; he gave him also all the great fish taken in his precincts, except the tongues; and lastly, he secured to him and his successor the delicious tythes of all his venison in the county of Essex.

The steeple was finished in 1221. The noble subterraneous church of *St. Faith, Ecclesia Sanctæ Fidis in cryptis*, was begun in 1257. It was supported by three rows of massy clustered pillars, with ribs diverging from them to support the solemn roof. This was the parish church. This undercroft, as buildings of this sort were called, had in it several chauntries

and monuments. It extended, says Dugdale, p. 119, under part of the choir, and the structure eastward, and was supported by three rows of large and massy pillars: a print of it attends the description given by our great antiquary. No part is now left, or of any other ancient crypt. A vast vault, supported by pillars, runs under the whole of St. Paul's, the work of its celebrated architect. Sir Christopher is interred in an obscure corner, beneath an ordinary flag, and on the wall above is the following inscription written by his son:

Subtus Conditur,
Hujus ecclesiæ et urbis conditor,
CHRISTOPHERUS WREN,
Qui vixit annos ultra nonaginta,
Non sibi sed bono publico.
Lector, si monumentum requiris,
CIRCUMSPICE.

It is to be lamented, that this beautiful thought should be flung away in the most darksome nook of the whole fabrick. Henry Lacie, earl of Lincoln, who died in 1312, made what was called the new work, at the east end of the church, in which was the chapel of our lady, and that of St. Dunstan. In the last was the tomb of that great earl.

The chapter house was adjoining to the south transept, was circular, and supported by four central pillars, and of more elegant Gothic than the rest of the building. This projected into a most beautiful cloister two stories high. On the walls of a cloister on the north side of St. Paul's, called Pardon-church-haugh, was painted the Machabre, or dance of death, a common subject on the walls of cloisters or religious places. This was a single piece, a long train of all orders of men, from the pope to the lowest of human beings; each figure has its partner, Death; the meagre spectre which leads the dance, shaking his remembring hour glass. Our old poet Lydgate, who flourished in the year 1430, translated a poem on the subject, from the French verses which attended a painting of the same kind, about St. Innocent's cloister at Paris. The original verses were made by Machaber, a German, in his own language. This shews the antiquity of the subject, and the origin of the hint from which Holbein executed his famous painting at Basil.

This cloister, the dance, and innumerable fine monuments, (for here were crowded by far the most superb) fell victims to the sacrilege of the protector Somerset, who demolished the whole, and carried the materials to his palace then erecting in the Strand.

Farther to the west, adjoining to this south side, was the
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parish church of St. Gregory. Over it was one of the towers which ornamented the western front. It was called the Lollards Tower, and was the bishop's prison for the heterodox, in which was committed many a midnight murder.

The style of the antient cathedral was a most beautiful gothic; over the east end, was a most elegant circular window; alterations were made in the ends of the two transepts; so that their form is not delivered down to us in the antient plans; from the central tower rose a lofty and most graceful spire.

The dimensions of this noble temple, as taken in 1309, were these: the length six hundred and ninety feet; the breadth a hundred and twenty; the height of the roof of the west part, from the floor, one hundred and two; of the east part, a hundred and eighty eight; of the tower, two hundred and sixty; of the spire, which was made of wood covered with lead, two hundred and seventy-four. The whole space the church occupied was three acres and a half, one rood and a half, and six perches.

The holiness of this place did not prevent thieves and profligates of all denominations lurking within the precincts, and committing, under favour of the night, murders and every sort of crime. Edward I. gave the dean and canons permission to inclose the whole within a wall; and to have gates to be shut every night, to exclude all disorderly people. Within these walls, on the north-west side was the palace, the winter residence of the bishops of London. It was a building of vast extent, and frequently lodged our kings on different occasions.

Before this cathedral was the famous Paul's Cross, a pulpit formed of wood, mounted upon steps of stones, and covered with lead, in which the most eminent divines were appointed to preach every Sunday in the forenoon. To this place, the court, the mayor and aldermen, and principal citizens, used to resort. The greatest part of the congregation sat in the open air: the king and his train had covered galleries; and the better sort of people, as appears from the old prints, were also protected from the injury of the weather; but the far greater part stood exposed in the open air: for which reason the preacher went, in very bad weather, to a place called the *Shrowds*: a covered space on the side of the church, to protect the congregation in inclement seasons. Considerable contributions were raised among the nobility and citizens, to support such preachers as were (as was often the case) called to town from either of the universities. In particular, the lord mayor and aldermen ordered that every preacher who came from a distance, should be freely accommodated, during five days, with sweet and convenient lodgings, fire, candle, and all necessities.

necessaries. And notice was given by the bishop of London, to the preacher appointed by him, of the place he was to repair to. The origin of the custom of preaching at crosses, was probably accidental. The sanctity of this species of pillar often caused a great resort of people, to pay their devotion to the great object of their erection. A preacher, seeing a large concourse, might be seized by a sudden impulse, ascend the steps, and deliver out his pious advice from a station so fit to inspire attention, and conveniently formed for the purpose. The example might be followed till the practice became established by custom. It certainly at first was a common cross, and coeval with the church. When it was first covered, and converted into a pulpit-cross, we are not informed. It was used not only for the instruction of mankind, by the doctrine of the preacher, but for every purpose political or ecclesiastical; for giving force to oaths, for promulging of laws, or rather the royal pleasure: for the emission of papal bulls, for anathematizing sinners, for benedictions, for exposing of penitents under censure of the church, for recantations, for the private ends of the ambitious, and for the defaming of those who had incurred the displeasure of crowned heads. The reign of Elizabeth was wisely ushered in by the appointment of good and able men to preach from this cross the doctrine of the reformation, and rejection of the papal power; in which politics were naturally intermixed. This began April the 9th 1559, with Dr. Bill the queen's almoner; he was followed by Grindal, Horn, Jewel, Sandys, and many others, who soon afterwards enjoyed the highest dignities in our church.

In 1561, the noble spire was totally burnt by lightning; as others say by the carelessness of a workman, who made a confession of it on his death bed. After this it never was restored. In fact it appears, that at this period the Cathedral was disgraced by the grossest irregularities, and disfigured by shameful encroachments. The bell-ringers permitted persons to ascend into the tower for money, where they amused themselves by hallooing, and throwing down small stones upon those who fauntered beneath. Drunkards and idlers were indulged in laying and sleeping upon the benches at the choir door. The choristers spent their time in talking, and hunting after spur-money, which was an exaction from persons who entered a cathedral booted and spurred. The gentlemen of the choir were peremptory in their demand, and threatened imprisonment in the choir for a night to all who refused them money. Porters, butchers, and water-bearers, were suffered (especially in time of service) to carry and recarry whatsoever they would. The windows were in general broken. Part of the vaults under
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the church were occupied by tradesmen, some were converted into wine cellars. More than twenty houses had a side formed by the church, whose windows were darkened, and walls smoked in consequence. At the same time the foundations were injured by houses of office cut through them; ovens and closets were dug in the walls for the accommodation of these habitations, and some parts of the church were converted into warehouses and workshops.

In consequence of resolutions taken in 1620, by James I., to repair the cathedral, the celebrated Inigo Jones was appointed to the work. But it was not attempted till 1633, when Laud laid the first stone, and Inigo the fourth. That great architect began, by giving at the west end a portico of the Corinthian order to this antient Gothic pile; and to the ends of the two transepts Gothic fronts. The great fire made way for the restoring of this magnificent pile by sir Christopher Wren, surveyor-general of his majesty's works, an architect worthy of so great a design. Sir Christopher made a model in wood of his first conception for re-building this church in the Roman style. He had in it an eye to the loss of the pulpit-cross, and had supplied its place by a magnificent auditory within, for the reception of a large congregation. This was approved by men of excellent judgment, but laid aside under the notion it had not sufficiently a temple-like form. A second was made, selected out of various sketches he had drawn; on this design sir Christopher set a high value: but this also was rejected. The third, which produced the present noble pile, was approved and executed. A singular accident happened at the beginning: while the great architect was setting out the dimensions of the dome, he ordered a common labourer to bring him a flat stone, to be laid as a direction to the masons; he brought a fragment of a grave-stone, on which was the word RESURGAM. This was not lost on sir Christopher, he caught the idea of the Phoenix, which he placed on the south portico, with that word cut beneath. The first stone was laid on June 21, 1675, and the building was completed by him in 1710; but the whole decorations were not finished till 1723. It was a most singular circumstance, that, notwithstanding it was 35 years in building, it was begun and finished by one architect, and under one prelate, Henry Compton, bishop of London. It is also said, that the same stone-mason (whose name was Strong) saw the laying of the first and the last stone. The church of St. Peter's was 135 years in building, in the reigns of 19 popes, and went through the hands of 12 architects.

The comparison between the churches of St. Peter at Rome, and St. Pauls in London, is almost inevitable, since it is acknowledged

known that sir Christopher Wren derived his ideas from the Catholic cathedral, although he has not servilely followed, but sometimes excelled, and sometimes fallen short of his model. It is not intended to discuss the particular merits and defects of each building, but a general comparative view may be gained from the following table:

	St. Peter's.	St. Paul's.
Length of the church and porch -	729 feet	500 feet.
Length of the cross - - -	510	250
Breadth of the front, with the turrets	364	180
Breadth of the same, without the turrets - - -	318	110
Breadth of the church and three naves	255	130
Breadth of the same, and the widest chapels - - -	364	180
Length of the porch within -	218	50
Breadth of the same within - -	40	20
Length of the plates at the upper steps	291	100
Breadth of the nave at the door -	67	40
Breadth of the nave at the third pillar and tribuna - - -	73	40
Breadth of the side isles - - -	29	17
Distance between the pillars of the nave - - -	44	25
Breadth of the same double pillars at St. Peter's - - -	29	
Single pillars at St. Paul's - - -		10
Two right sides of the great pilasters of the cupola - - -	65	35
Distance between the same pilasters	72	40
Outward diameter of the cupola -	189	145
Inward diameter - - -	138	108
From the door within to the cupola	313	190
From the cupola to the end of the tribuna - - -	167	170
Breadth of each of the turrets -	77	35
The outward diameter of the lantern	36	18
Height.		
From the ground without to the top of the cross - - -	437	340
The turrets - - -	289	222
To the top of the highest front statues	175	135
The first pillars of the Corinthian order - - -	74	33
Breadth of the same - - -	9	4
Their bases and pedestals - - -	19	13

Their

	St. Peter's.	St. Paul's
Their capitals - - - -	10 feet.	5 feet.
The architrave, frieze, and cornice -	19	10
The Composite pillars at St. Paul's, and Tuscan at St. Peter's - - -	25	25
The ornaments of the same, above and below - - - -	14	16
The triangle of the mezzo-relievo, with its cornice - - - -	22	18
Width - - - -	92	74
The base of the cupola to the pedestals of the pillars - - - -	36	38
The pillars of the cupola - - -	32	28
Their bases and pedestals - - -	4	5
Their capitals, architrave, frieze, and cornice - - - -	12	12
From the cornice to the outward slope of the cupola - - - -	25	40
The lantern, from the cupola to the ball - - - -	63	50
Diameter of the ball - - - -	9	6
The cross, with its ornaments below	14	6
Statues on the front, with their pe- destals - - - -	25	15
The outward slope of the cupola -	89	50
The cupola and lantern, from the front cornice to the top of the cross -	280	240
Height of the front niches - - -	20	14
Width - - - -	9	5
The first front windows - - -	20	33
Width - - - -	10	7

It is to be mentioned with regret, that the great architect, to whom our capital was so highly indebted, was, in 1718, dismissed from his employ (which he had for the space of fifty years most honourably discharged) in favour of Mr. Benson, whose demerits became soon so apparent, as to occasion almost his immediate removal. Sir Christopher survived this shameful insult five years: and died in his 91st year, on February 25th, 1723.

Avoiding the minuteness of a particular description of the whole interior of this noble edifice, it may be interesting to notice those parts which are generally denominated its curiosities, and which inquisitive visitors pay for seeing.

St. Paul's is open for divine service three times every day in the year; at six o'clock in the morning in summer, and seven in the winter; a quarter before ten o'clock in the forenoon,

and a quarter after three o'clock in the afternoon. At all other times the doors are shut, and no persons admitted but such as are willing to pay for seeing the church and its curiosities. Strangers will find admittance by knocking at the door of the northern portico. A person is ready within to pass the visitor to the stair-case leading to the curiosities. For which he demands four-pence. For this first cost, the visitor passes to the two galleries on the outside of the church, the first being on the top of the colonnade, and the highest at the foot of the lantern. Many persons pay no more than this first charge (four-pence), and amuse themselves by the prospect from either, or both of the galleries. For each of the other curiosities there is a separate charge, and the visitor may see or pass by which of them he pleases. The body of the church may be seen for two-pence.

The Library is the first object to be seen in the ascent; the charge for which is two-pence. It is a handsome room, about fifty feet by forty, having shelves of books to the top, with a gallery running along the sides. The floor is of oak, consisting of 2376 small square pieces, and is not only curious for its being inlaid without a nail or peg to fasten the parts, but is extremely neat in the workmanship, and very beautiful in its appearance. The collection of books is neither large nor very valuable. The principal things pointed out to a stranger, are several beautifully carved stone pillars; some Latin manuscripts, beautifully written by Monks 800 years ago; and an English manuscript illuminated, containing rules for the government of a convent, written in old English about 500 years since; but this and the others are in very fine preservation. The portrait of Dr. Henry Compton, who filled the see during the whole time of building the cathedral, and who fitted up this library at his own expence, and gave it to the church, is placed over the fire-place, and has not only some merit in the painting, but fills the mind with pleasure from the above circumstances. The minor canons, and other ecclesiastical officers of the cathedral, have access to these books, and may borrow any of them under certain restrictions.

The Model, formed by Sir Christopher Wren's order, from his first design for this cathedral, is that which no man of taste will behold without indescribable emotions, both for its own exquisite beauty, and for its being the favourite design of the great architect. A common mistake, that ought to be particularly pointed out, is, that Sir Christopher Wren took this design from St. Peter's at Rome. The plan was the invention of his own genius, working with the noble productions of other great men in his eye; but using these only as part of his materials,

terials, and confiding in his own creative mind for the effect he was ambitious to produce. The model is of one story only, and much more simple in all other respects than the cathedral. For that elegance which results from the difficult union of simplicity and variety it is most conspicuous. The wonderful power of the architect is discovered by the joint contemplation of this model, and of the church; the latter, departing as it does from the purity of his first conception, to meet the vulgar notions of superstition, yet presenting a master-piece of the art of another kind. Still it is greatly to be lamented that this model was not preferred to that from which the church was built. Here is also a model of an altar-piece taken from St. Peter's at Rome, which the architect intended for this cathedral, had his own plan been followed. The charge for seeing these models is two-pence.

The Clock-work and *Great Bell* are to be seen for two-pence; the former is curious, both for the magnitude of its wheels and other parts, and the very great accuracy and fineness of its workmanship. The length of its pendulum is fourteen feet, and the weight at the extremity one cwt.

The Great Bell in the southern tower weighs 11,470lbs. The hammer of the clock strikes the hours on this bell, which may be heard at a great distance, and is uncommonly fine in its tone. The Great Bell is never tolled but on the death of the king, queen, or some of the royal family, or for the bishop of London, or for the dean of St. Paul's; and when tolled, the clapper is moved and not the bell.

The Whispering Gallery is a very great curiosity. It is 140 yards in circumference. A stone seat runs round the gallery along the foot of the wall. On the side directly opposite the door by which the visitor enters, several yards of the seat is covered with matting, on which the visitor being seated, the man, who shews the gallery, whispers with his mouth close to the wall, near the door, at the distance of 140 feet from the visitor, who hears his words in a loud voice, seemingly at his ear. The mere shutting of the door produces a sound to those on the opposite seat like violent claps of thunder. The effect is not so perfect if the visitor sits down half way between the door and the matted seats, and still less so if he stand near the man who speaks, but on the other side of the door.

The marble pavement of the church is extremely beautiful seen from this gallery. The painting on the inner side of the dome (by Sir James Thornhill), is viewed with most advantage here. The subjects are the principal passages in St. Paul's life, treated in eight compartments: 1. His Conversion. 2. Punishing Elymas the Sorcerer with Blindness. 3. Curing the poor Cripple

Cripple at Lystra, and the worship paid him by the Priests of Jupiter as a god. 4. Conversion of the Jailor. 5. Preaching at Ephesus. 6. The burning of the Magic books in consequence of the miracles he wrought there. 7. Trial before Agrippa. 8. His Shipwreck on the island of Melita (Malta), with the miracle of the Viper.

These paintings are now going to decay.

An iron ballustrade, running round the inner circle of the gallery, screens the wall from the floor of the gallery to the painted pilasters from the view of a spectator below, but that part of the wall is seen in the gallery, and is not only unornamented, but in a very dirty and unseemly condition. The Whispering Gallery is shewn for two-pence

The Ball is to be seen for one shilling and sixpence for each person; and one shilling more is paid to the guide; so that if only one person ascends to the ball, it is at the expence of two shillings and sixpence; if more than one, the guide having only a shilling, the expence to each is lessened in proportion to the number. The ascent to the ball is attended with some difficulty, and is encountered by few; yet both the ball and passage to it well deserve the labour. The diameter of the interior of the ball is six feet two inches, and it will contain twelve persons.

The prospect from every part of the ascent to the top of St. Paul's, wherever an opening presents itself, is extremely curious. Perhaps the effect is most complete from the gallery surrounding the foot of the lantern. The metropolis from that spot has a kind of mimic appearance, like the objects in a *fantoccini*. The streets, the pavements, the carriages, and foot passengers, have all the appearance of fairy ground and fairy objects. The spectator, contemplating the bustle of the diminutive throng below, is removed a little out of the sphere of his usual sympathy with them; and, as if they were emmets, asks himself involuntarily, "in what are those little, consequential, eager animals engaged."

The form of the metropolis and the adjacent country is most perfectly seen from the gallery at the foot of the lantern, on a bright summer day. The ascent to this gallery is by 534 steps, of which 260 nearest the bottom are extremely easy; those above difficult, and in some parts dark and unpleasant. In the ascent to this gallery may be seen the brick cone that supports the lantern, with its ball and cross; the outer dome being turned on the outside of the cone, and the inner dome turned on the inside. The entire contrivance to produce the effect within the church and on the outside, intended by the architect, is extremely fine and marvellous. From the pavement of the church the interior dome appears one uninterrupted dome to the
upper

upper extremity; but it consists in fact of two parts, the lower and principal dome having a large circular aperture at its top, through which is seen a small dome, that appears part of the great and lower dome, although entirely separated from it; being turned also within the cone, but considerably above it. The timber work, which strengthens at once the outer dome and the cone within it, is an object that the stranger will do well to inspect. In a word, for the cost of four-pence, as has been before observed, admits the visitor to the highest gallery, hours may be passed in the contemplation of many curious and pleasing objects.

The interior of St. Paul's has not, till of late, been adorned with monuments. Those of the benevolent Howard, and the learned Johnson, were the earliest; some others have been added. Royal processions of pious commemoration have been usual to this cathedral; two during the present reign have been extremely brilliant and interesting, while that which was formed to escort to the grave the remains of the British hero, Lord Viscount Nelson, was perhaps the most affecting scene of the kind ever exhibited.

WESTMINSTER-ABBEY. Some account of the establishment of this venerable structure has necessarily been given in describing the origin of the civil government of the city which derives its name from it. This noble specimen of Gothic architecture is said to have been founded about the year 610, by Sebert, king of the East Saxons, on the ruins of the temple of Apollo, flung down, quoth legend, by an earthquake. The king dedicated his new church to St. Peter, who descended in person with a host of heavenly choristers to save the bishop Mellitus the trouble of consecration. The saint descended on the Surrey side in a stormy night; but prevailing on Edric, a fisherman, to waft him over, performed the ceremony; and as a proof, left behind the chrism and precious droppings of the wax candles, with which the astonished fisherman saw the church illuminated. He conveyed the saint safely back; who directed him to inform the bishop that there was no farther need of consecration. He likewise directed Edric to fling out his nets, who was rewarded with a miraculous draught of salmon: the saint also promised to the fisherman and his successors, that they should never want plenty of salmon, provided they presented every tenth to his church. This custom was observed till at least the year 1382. The fisherman that day had a right to sit at the same table with the prior; and he might demand of the cellarer ale and bread; and the cellarer again might take of the fish's tail as much as he could with four fingers and his thumb erect.

This ill-contrived fable only shews the difficulty or impossibility of obtaining from the records of ancient times any certain truth with respect to the foundation of this church; its frequent destruction and restoration can alone be traced. The present elegant and magnificent pile was begun by Henry III., who pulled down the Saxon structure of Edward the Confessor. In 1245, he began this great work, in the mode of architecture which began to take place in his days, but did not carry it on farther than four arches west of the middle tower; and the vaulting of this was not finished till 1296. He did not live to complete his design, which was carried on by his successor, but it may be said to have never been finished. It was slowly carried on by succeeding princes, and from the portcullis on the roof of the last arches, it appears that Henry VII. or VIII. had a concern in the repairs, that being the device of those monarchs. It was never finished: the great tower and two western towers remaining incomplete at the Reformation; after which the two present towers arose: that in the centre is wanting. A casual fire had long before destroyed the roof; but by the piety of Edward and several of the abbots, it was restored to the beauty and splendour we so justly admire. Henry performed two acts of pious respect to the remains of the founders of this abbey, which must not be omitted. He translated those of Sebert into a tomb of touchstone, beneath an arch made in the wall. Above were paintings, long since defaced, done by order of the king, who was strongly imbued with the love of the arts. But what does that prince the most honour, is the shrine which he caused to be made in honour of the Confessor, placed in a chapel which bears his name. This beautiful Mosaic work was the performance of Peter Cavallini, inventor of that species of ornament. It is supposed that he was brought into England by the abbot Ware, who visited Rome in 1256. Weever expressly says, "he brought from thence certain workmen, and rich porphyry stones, whereof he made that curious, singular, rare pavement before the high altar, and with these stones and workmen he did also frame the shrine of Edward the Confessor." This beautiful memorial consists of three rows of arches, the lower pointed, the upper round; and on each side of the lower is a most elegant twisted pillar, an ornament the artist seems peculiarly fond of. Children, or childish age, has greatly injured this beautiful shrine, by picking out the Mosaic, through the shameful connivance of the attendant vergers.

Round this chapel are twelve others, all built by Henry III. They were an after-thought, and formed no part of the original design. Before this shrine seem to have been offered
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the *Spolia opima*. The Scotch regalia and their sacred chair from Scone were offered here; and Alphonso, third son to Edward I. who died in his childhood, presented the golden coronet of our unfortunate prince the last Llewelyn. Along the freeze of the screen of the chapel, are fourteen legendary sculptures respecting the Confessor. They are so rudely done, that we may conclude that the art at this time was at a very low ebb. The first is the trial of queen Emma. The next the birth of Edward. Another is his coronation. The fourth tells us how our saint was frightened into the abolition of *Dane-gelt*, by seeing the devil dance upon the money bags. The fifth is the story of his winking at the thief who was robbing his treasury. The sixth is meant to relate the appearance of our Saviour to him. The seventh shews how the invasion of England was frustrated by the drowning of the Danish king. Eighthly, is seen the quarrel between the boys Tosti and Harold, predicting their respective fates. In the ninth sculpture, is the Confessor's vision of the Seven Sleepers. Tenthly, how he meets St. John the Evangelist in the guise of a pilgrim. Eleventhly, how the blind were cured by their eyes being washed in his dirty water. Twelfthly, how St. John delivers to the pilgrims a ring. In the Thirteenth, they deliver the ring to the king, which he had unknowingly given to St. John as an alms, when he met him in the form of a pilgrim. This was attended with a message from the saint, foretelling the death of the king. And the Fourteenth shews the consequential haste made by him to complete his pious foundation.

The building in general and the curiosities in the interior of the abbey, (and in fact the whole building and its contents, form a series of curiosities,) are described in various works, and particularly with great minuteness in Mr. Malcolm's *Londinum redivivum*, under the following heads; some of which demand notice here.

1st. The choir.

2d. Abbot Richard Ware's pavement, the materials of which are lapis lazuli, jasper, porphyry, alabaster, Lydian and Serpentine marbles, and touchstone. It was made at the charge of the abbot, and is said to have been purchased by him in France. An admirer of the arts must view it with the deepest regret. It was injured no doubt at the reformation, when the high altar was removed; at its restoration by queen Mary; and afterwards almost demolished. The particulars relating to it are too long to be described here, but the following curious extract will shew the pains bestowed on it, and the mystic meaning it was intended to convey. The whole pavement exhibited various figures, the design of which was, to represent

the time the world was to last ; or the *primum mobile*, according to the Ptolemaic system, was going about, and was given in some verses, formerly to be read on the pavement, relating to those figures.

“ Si lector posita prudenter cuncta revolvat,
Hic finem primi mobilis inveniet.

Sepe-trina, canes et equos, hominesque subaddas,
Cervos et corvos, aquilas, immania cete,
Mundum ; quodque sequens pereuntes triplicat annos.
Sphæricus archetypum monstrat globus hic microcosmum.
Christi mileno, bis centeno, duodeno
Cum Sexago, subductis quatuor, anno,
Tertius Henricus Rex, Urbs, Odoricus, et Abbas
Hos compegere porphyreos lapides.”

“ Of these, and they seem to need it, this explanation is given.” The threefold hedge is put for three years, the time a dry hedge usually stood : a dog for three times that space, or nine years, it being taken for the time that creature usually lives : an horse in like manner twenty-seven : a man, eighty-one : a hart, two hundred and forty-three : a raven seven hundred and twenty-nine : an eagle, two thousand one hundred and eighty-seven : a great whale, six thousand five hundred and sixty-one : the world, nineteen thousand six hundred and eighty-three ; each succeeding figure giving a term of years, imagined to be the time of their continuance, three times as much as that before it. In the last four verses, the time when the work was performed, and the parties concerned in it are expressed ; the poet seems to have been under some difficulty to express the time. By the rest is meant, the king was at the charge, that the stones were purchased at Rome, that one Odorick was the master workman, and that the abbot of Westminster, who procured the materials, had the care of the work.”

3. The chapel of Edward the Confessor already mentioned, in which are the tombs of many of our kings, queens, princes, and princesses.

4. The Chantry, which contains many curious sculptures and reliques of antiquity, and some excellent models of churches which were not all built.

5. The north transept, where are many monuments to illustrious men, one of the most conspicuous of which is that which commemorates the great Earl of Chatham.

6. St. Paul's Chapel, which is similarly occupied.

7. Henry the seventh's chapel ; in the approach to which, notice is to be taken of the oratory of Henry V. The ascent from the abbey to this chapel is formed by twelve steps. Over them is a most magnificent arch, of the same width as the nave.

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The pavement of the chapel is of black and white marble lozenges, in which is a square, something different in the shape of the pieces, containing a plate of perforated brass. This is the only memorial the present royal family have to distinguish the place for their interment, and the only monument to the memories of King George and Queen Caroline; the late Dukes of Cumberland, &c. &c. The beauties of this astonishing piece of architecture are described at too much length to be inserted here, indeed its magnificence and elegance can only be known by frequent inspection, aided by the perusal of those authors who have most scientifically displayed them. In this chapel is performed the ceremony of installing Knights of the Bath.

8. The chapel of St. Nicholas; 9. That of St. Edmond; and, 10. That of St. Benedict, all which contain the tombs of illustrious men.

11. The south transept, generally termed "Poet's Corner," for the well known reason that it contains the remains, or at least the commemorative monuments of the most celebrated British bards.

12. The chapel of St. Blase, a bishop and martyr; the patron saint of wool combers. In this part of the church, among many other monuments, is that to the celebrated David Garrick.

13. The south aisle; 14. The nave; 15. The middle aisle, with 16, its pavement; and 17, the north aisle, with 18, its pavement, all which are crowded with monuments, some of which are of the highest excellence.

19. The bells, which are six in number, and have appropriate inscriptions.

Quitting the inside of the church, the description of the exterior follows, beginning with the cloisters, of which the pavement, and the south and east sides with their pavements, are also filled with monuments and inscriptions.

The ancient Chapter House demands particular notice. It was built in 1250; the entrance is on one side of the cloister, through a most rich and magnificent Gothic portal, the mouldings most exquisitely carved: this is divided into two Gothic doors. After a descent of several steps, is the Chapter House, an octagon, each side of which had most superb and lofty windows, now filled up, and lighted by lesser. The opening into this room is as noble as that from the cloister. The stone roof is destroyed, and one of plank is substituted. The central pillar remains, light, slender, and elegant, surrounded by eight others; bound by two equidistant *fasciae*, and terminated in capitals of beautiful simplicity. By consent of the abbot, in 1377, the commons of Great Britain first held their parliaments.

THE METROPOLIS.

ments in this place, the crown undertaking the repairs. Here they sat till the year 1547, when Edward VI. granted the chapel of St. Stephen for that purpose. It is at present filled with the public records, among which is the original Domesday book, now above seven hundred years old: it is in as fine preservation as if it was the work of yesterday. Beneath the chapter house is a very singular crypt. The roof, which forms the floor of the former, is supported by a short round pillar, quite hollow. The top spreads into massy plain ribs, the supports of the roof. The walls are not less than eighteen feet thick, and form a most firm base to the superstructure. They had been pierced with several small windows, which are now lost by the vast increase of earth on the outside; one is just visible in a neighbouring garden. In this part are also various monuments.

The further description of the outside of the Abbey is worthy of perusal in the work of Mr. Malcolm, but too long to be inserted here. He has also added many curious particulars respecting distinguished persons who belonged to the Abbey, and funerals and coronations.

Not far from the Abbey stood the Sanctuary, the place of refuge absurdly indulged in old times to criminals of certain denominations. The church belonging to it was in form of a cross, and double; one being built over the other: it was of vast strength, and was with much labour demolished. Within its precincts was born Edward V.; and here his unhappy mother took refuge with her younger son Richard, to secure him from his cruel uncle, who had already possession of the elder brother. Seduced by the persuasions of the Duke of Buckingham and Thomas Scott, alias Rotherham, archbishop of York, she surrendered the little innocent, who was instantly carried to his brother in the Tower, where they were soon after involved in one common fate. To the west of the Sanctuary stood the Elecmofynary or Almonry, where the alms of the Abbey were wont to be distributed. But it is still more remarkable for having been the place where the first printing press ever known in England was erected. It was in the year 1474, when William Caxton, probably encouraged by the learned Thomas Milling, then abbot, produced *the game and play of the chesse*, the first book ever printed in these kingdoms. There is a slight difference about the place in which it was printed, but all agree that it was within the precincts of this religious house. Would the monks have permitted this, could they have foreseen how certainly the art would conduce to their overthrow, by the extension of knowledge, and the publication of the long concealed truths of Christianity?

Many other churches in the metropolis have ample claims to the notice of the reader, but to describe them all would take up too much room in this work, and the task is ably performed in many other publications.

THE TOWER. The tower of London is situated on the north bank of the Thames, at the extremity of the city. The antiquity of the building has been the subject of much inquiry and discussion. That the Romans had a fort on the spot at present occupied by the Tower, is now past doubt, since the discovery of a silver ingot, and three golden coins; (one of the emperor Honorius, the others of Arcadius,) which were found in 1777, in digging for the foundation of a new office for the Board of Ordnance; through the foundation of certain ancient buildings, beneath which they were met with on the natural ground. The coins were supposed to have been part of the money remitted to pay the last legion; which was ever sent to the assistance of the Britons. The Tower was the treasury, in which the public money was deposited. The present fortress is generally believed to have been built by the Conqueror, in his first year, and strongly garrisoned with Normans, to secure the allegiance of his new and reluctant subjects. The first work seems to have been suddenly thrown up in 1066, on his taken possession of the capital. The great square tower, called the White Tower, was erected in 1078, when it arose under the directions of the great military architect Gundulph, bishop of Rochester, who gave this noble specimen of innovation, in the art of castle building, and which was pursued by him in the execution of Rochester-castle, on the banks of the Medway. The walls, which are eleven feet thick, have a winding stair-case, continued along two of the sides, like that in the castle of Dover. This building was long dignified by the name of Cæsar's Tower: but that illustrious invader probably never saw London; originally it stood by itself. Fitz-stephen gives it the name of *Arx Palatina*, the Palatine Tower; and says, with his usual romance, that the mortar of the foundation was tempered with the blood of beasts. The Tower is separated from the Thames by a platform, and part of the ditch. The former, and the parapet, were erected in 1561, when sixty cannon, mounted on iron carriages, were placed there, merely for firing on rejoicing days, as there is no kind of cover for the artillery-men who work them. At each extremity of the platform, are passages to Tower-hill, and near that to the East, a place for proving muskets. The ditch, of very considerable width and depth, proceeds north on each side of the fortress, nearly in a parallel line, and meets in a semi-circle; the

the slope is faced with brick, and the great wall of the Tower has been mended with that material so frequently, that it might almost be disputed whether any part of it, but the turrets, had ever been stone. Cannon are planted at intervals round the line; they command every avenue leading to Tower-hill; and as the garrison have a shelter, they might be fired during an insurrection with great effect. The ditch is very much neglected, and seldom contains water sufficient to cover the bottom completely. The state of security, in which government have long considered the country to be, has operated conspicuously within the Tower, where some hundreds of old houses line the interior of the wall, to the evident injury of the place as a fortress. If heavy cannon were brought against the Tower, the lines would not be tenable one quarter of an hour, because the balls taking place in those houses, must inevitably bring them down in rubbish, which would fall on the garrison, and, still worse, clog the ports. This observation will apply besides to the armoury on the north-side.

Within this Tower is a very ancient chapel, dedicated to St. John, for the use of such of our kings and queens as might wish to pay their devotion here, ever since the time of William the Conqueror. It is of an oblong form, rounded at the east end; on each side are five short round pillars, with vast squared capitals, cut in different forms on their sides, with a cross on each; the arches are round, and all suits the architecture of its date. At the east end are two pillars of the same form as the others. Above is a gallery, with windows with rounded arches, looking into the chapel. This gallery is said to have been allotted for the females. The columns pass down quite to the ground floor through a lower apartment, which is now a magazine of gunpowder. The chapel forms a part of the Record office, and is filled with papers.

Adjacent to this room is another very large one, also filled with papers. This is called the council chamber; in which many of the first moment have been held.

In 1092, a violent tempest did great injury to the Tower; but it was repaired by William Rufus, and his successor. The first added another castellated building on the south side, between it and the Thames, which was afterwards called Saint Thomas's Tower. Beneath that was Traitor's Gate, through which state prisoners were brought from the river: and under another, properly enough called, the Bloody. In the south-east angle of the inclosure, were the royal apartments; for the Tower was a palace during near five hundred years, and only
ceased

ceased to be so on the accession of Queen Elizabeth. In Bloody Tower is a straight room, or dungeon, called (from the misery the unhappy occupier of this very confined place endures) the *Little Ease*.

Another portion of the building is called the *Wakefield Tower*, in a fine octagonal room, belonging to which, tradition records, that Henry VI. was murdered. This room is at present filled with papers belonging to the Record office, containing all the records from the Conquest to the year 1483. The rest, to the present time, are kept in the Rolls Chapel. This Tower took its name from having been the place in which the prisoners, taken at the battle of Wakefield, were confined.

The Tower was first inclosed by William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, and Chancellor of England, in the reign of Richard I. This haughty prelate, having quarrelled with John, third brother to Richard, under pretence of guarding against his designs, surrounded the whole with walls embattled, and made on the outside a vast ditch, into which, in after-times, the water from the Thames was introduced. Different princes added other works. The present contents within the walls are, twelve acres, and five rods; the circuit, on the outside of the ditch, one thousand and fifty-two feet. It was again inclosed with a mud wall by Henry III.: this was placed at a distance from the ditch, and occasioned the taking down a part of the city wall which was resented by the citizens; who, pulling down this precinct of mud, were punished by the king with a fine of a thousand marks.

The *Beauchamp Tower*, is noted for the illustrious personages confined within its walls. Among them were the ill-fated Anna Bullen, and the good and accomplished lady Jane Grey.

Edward IV. built the *Lion's Tower*; it was originally called the Bulwark, but received the former name from its use. A menagerie had very long been a piece of regal state; Henry I. had his at his manor of Woodstock, where he kept lions, leopards, lynxes, porcupines, and several other uncommon beasts. They were afterwards removed to the Tower. Edward II. commanded the Sheriffs of London to pay the keepers of the king's leopards sixpence a day, for the sustenance of the leopards; and three-halfpence a day for the diet of the keeper, out of the fee farm of the city. Henry also issued his order to the sheriffs, to supply four-pence a day for the maintenance of his white bear, and his keeper, in the Tower of London. They were also to provide a muzzle, and an iron chain, to hold the said bear out of the water; and a long cord to hold it during the time it was fishing in the Thames: they were besides ordered to build a small house in the Tower, for the king's elephant, and to make provision both for beast
and

and keeper. The royal menagerie is to this day exceedingly well supplied. The office of the keeper of the menagerie was added to that of constable of the Tower for the sake of the emolument. In the reign of Henry VII. John de Vere, Earl of Oxford, was constable; and was appointed keeper of the lions, with the allowance of twelve-pence *per diem*, and six-pence for each beast.

The room in which the artillery is kept, and the armoury of small arms above, (each three hundred and forty feet five inches long,) do great honour to the kingdom. They are in the most admiral order; and are said to excel all other collections of the same kind in Europe.

The principal entrance to the Tower is on the west, and is wide enough to admit a carriage. It consists of two gates on the outside of the ditch; a stone bridge built over the ditch, and a gate within the ditch. The gates are opened in the morning with the following ceremony: the yeoman porter, with a serjeant and six men, goes to the governor's house for the keys; having received them, he proceeds to the innermost gate, and passing that, it is again shut. He then opens the three outermost gates, at each of which the guards rest their firelocks, while the keys pass and repass. On his return to the innermost gate, he calls to the wardens on duty, to take King George's keys; when they open the gate, and the keys are placed in the warden's hall. At night the same formality is used in shutting the gates; and as the yeoman porter, with his guard, is returning with the keys to the governor's house, the main guard, with their officers, are under arms, who challenge him with, *Who comes there?* he answers, *The Keys*; and the challenger replies, *Pass Keys*. The guards, by order, rest their firelocks; and the yeoman porter says, *God save King George*; the soldiers all answering, *Amen*. He then goes on to the governor's house, and there leaves the keys. After the keys are deposited with the governor, no person can enter or leave the Tower, without the watch-word for the night. If any person obtains permission to pass, the yeoman porter attends, and the same ceremony is repeated.

The Tower is governed by the constable of the Tower, who, at coronations and other state ceremonies, has the custody of the crown and other regalia. Under him is a lieutenant, deputy-lieutenant, commonly called governor, tower-major, gentleman porter, yeoman porter, gentleman-gaoler, four quarter gunners, and forty warders. The warder's uniform is the same as that of the yeoman of the guards; their coats having large sleeves and flowing skirts, made of fine scarlet cloth, laced round the edges and seams with several rows of gold

gold lace, and a broad laced girdle round their waists. On their backs and breasts is the king's silver badge, representing the thistle and rose, on which are the letters G. R. Their caps are round, flat at top, and tied about with bands of party coloured ribbands.

The Tower is garrisoned by the guards, and a detachment from his Majesty's third regiment.

The Tower is used as a state prison, and in general the prisoners are confined in the warders' houses, but by application to the privy council, they are usually permitted to walk on the inner platform, during part of the day, in company of a warder. The whole has recently undergone a thorough repair, and is open as a public promenade only on Sundays.

Few persons inhabit or visit the metropolis, who have not at some period made a visit of curiosity to the Tower: the objects worthy of attention are well described in a small book sold at the place.

Tower Hill has long been the place appointed for the execution of traitors. For a considerable time, there was a dispute between the crown and the city about the right to the Tower-hill. In the reign of Edward IV. the king's officers erected there a gallows, and a scaffold for the execution of offenders. The citizens complained; Edward immediately disavowed the act, by public proclamation, and resigned to them the monopoly of the axe and the halter; and vested in them the exclusive privilege of drawing, hanging, and quartering. From that time the fatal apparatus is always provided by the city. The condemned are delivered to the sheriffs by the lieutenant, who takes from the former a receipt for their delivery; the sheriffs then see execution done, as in other places.

The church of *St. Petrus ad Vincula*, within the Tower, has been the undistinguishing repository of the headless bodies of numbers, who ended their days on the adjacent hill; or, when greatly favoured, within the fortress. The ancient church was much more splendid, it being occasionally the place at which the kings of England performed their orisons. In the time of Henry III. here were stalls for the King and Queen; a chancel dedicated to Saint Peter, and another to Saint Mary. The church was adorned with a fine cross, images of Saints, various paintings, and several holy figures in painted glass.

THE MONUMENT. This pillar was erected to commemorate the awful calamity of the great fire, which began the 2d of September, 1666; and in four days consumed every part of this noble city within the walls, except what lies within a line drawn from the north part of Coleman-street, and just to the south west of Leadenhall, and from thence to the
Tower

Tower. Its ravages were also extended without the walls, to the west, as far as Fetter-lane, and the Temple. As it began in Pudding-lane, it ended in Smithfield, at Pye-corner; this circumstance might occasion the inscription with the figure of a boy, on a house in the last place, which attributes the fire of London to the sin of gluttony. The boy is represented wonderfully fat indeed!

The legislature, fully impressed with the importance of the event, determined to commemorate it by a magnificent memento, the execution of which they committed to Sir Christopher Wren. The situation is extremely unfavourable, and rather dangerous, for this reason: an erection 202 feet in height, is supported by a base of no more than twenty-one feet square, almost eternally shaken by heavy laden carriages, that pass within a dozen feet of it. Another defect incident to the outline of a pillar is the difficulty of repair, and the still greater difficulty of taking it down whenever any fissure may render such a measure necessary, as there are no projections for the firm support of scaffolds, or apertures to insert transverse scantlings. The Monument is a complete pedestal and column of the Doric order, with a balcony on the capital, and a circular attic, terminating in a gilt flame. Numbers of strangers annually ascend the spiral stairs within, in order to indulge that curiosity which is ever ready to overcome fatigue, and sometimes to brave danger, for gratification. On the cap of the pedestal, at the angles, are four dragons, the supporters of the city arms: these cost two hundred pounds, and were the work of Edward Peirce, jun. On the west side of the pedestal is a bas relief, cut by Gabriel Cibber, in admirable taste. It represents emblematically this sad catastrophe; Charles is seen, surrounded with Liberty, Genius, and Science, giving directions for the restoring of the city. Here the sculptor found, luckily, one example to compliment the attention of the thoughtless monarch towards the good of his subjects: for, during the horrors of the conflagration, and after it was subdued, his endeavours to stop the evil, and to remedy the effects, were truly indefatigable. The king was seriously affected by this calamity, and many emotions of piety and devotion were excited in him. There was, for a short time, great reason to expect the fruits of this his brief return to heaven: but they were quickly blasted by the uncommon wickedness of the people about him, who, by every profane witticism on the recent calamity, and even by suggesting that it was the blessing of God, to humble this rebellious city, and to prepare it for his yoke, soon removed every good thought from the royal breast.—This noble column was begun in 1671; and finished in 1677; at the expence of 14,500*l*. The remaining sides have long inscriptions

tions, perpetuating the cause and progress of the fire, and the number of houses, churches, and other public buildings, destroyed by it; the measures taken to rebuild the city, and to preserve it from similar calamities; and a philippic against the Roman Catholics, which was erased by order of James II. and restored after his abdication. An adventurous sailor slid down a rope from the balcony, in September, 1732, to the Three-Tuns-Tavern, in Gracechurch-street; but a more extraordinary exploit was achieved the next morning, when a waterman's boy who had paid for ascending, finding the stairs crowded, let himself down by the rope the sailor had used, which hung perpendicularly from the gallery. Beside these descents, the neighbours once saw that of a miserable suicide, who was dashed to pieces.

TEMPLE BAR. As this is now the only remaining formal barrier of the city, and even this is expected to be speedily removed, some description of it may be preserved here. It was erected from 1670 to 1672. The pilasters are Corinthian, the pediment arched, and it is adorned with statues of James I. his queen, and Charles I. and II. It is 54 feet in length, and 17 feet 3 inches in depth. The length is divided into eight parts; the gate in the midst is two; the posterns one each. The great arch is 13 feet six inches; height, two squares and one half circle. The side arches six feet nine inches; two squares in height, and the key stone. The columns are 24 feet, with base and capital. They are in diameter, one-tenth part of their height, (two feet four inches,) and they come out from the wall one-sixth part of the diameter. The pedestal is seven feet high; the base one-fifth part of the columns; the architrave, frieze, and cornice, are in height one-fifth part of the columns, with base and capitals, or four feet nine inches by the architrave. Before the great fire, the barrier consisted only of posts, rails, and chains. On this gate the heads of persons executed for high treason, have usually been affixed; it is also one of the places at which peace is proclaimed, with great ceremony; and when the sovereign has thought fit to make processions into the city for pious purposes, he has been met at this gate, and received with due solemnity by the Lord Mayor, and city officers.

CHARING-CROSS. Another public erection in the metropolis, to which curiosity attaches some interest, is one at the western extremity of the Strand, called Charing-Cross. This triangular space was within the village of Charing, originally detached from London. The addition of *Cross* proceeded from the conjugal piety of Edward I. who commanded the erection of that solemn type of christianity, to commemorate

the progress of his lamented Eleanor's remains to the place of their interment. The cross alluded to, stood where the statue is now situated ; it was destroyed by the religious fury of the reformers ; but by drawings still extant, it appears to have been of an octagonal form, and in an upper stage ornamented with eight figures. The cross was in the next century replaced by a most beautiful and animated equestrian statue, in brass, of Charles I. cast in 1633, by Le Sœuer, for the Earl of Arundel. It was not erected till the year 1678, when it was placed on the present pedestal, the work of Grinlyn Gibbons. The parliament had ordered it to be sold and broke to pieces ; but John River, the brazier who purchased it, having more taste or more loyalty than his masters, buried it un mutilated, and shewed them some broken pieces of brass, in token of his obedience. M. d'Archenholz gives a diverting anecdote of this brazier ; that he cast a vast number of handles of knives and forks in brass, which he sold as made of the broken statue. They were bought with great eagerness by the royalists, from affection to their monarch, and by the rebels, as a mark of triumph over the murdered sovereign. It has been remarked as matter of some astonishment, that the artist has omitted a girth to the saddle.

THE ROYAL EXCHANGE. A place especially set apart for the meeting of commercial men was not established in London till the reign of Elizabeth. Sir Thomas Gresham, whose extensive concerns made him well known to his fellow citizens, was the active and unwearied promoter of this design ; toward the completion of which the city of London advanced about 4000*l.* for the purchase of eighty houses, which were taken down, and the ground levelled at their expence. The site thus prepared, Sir Thomas agreed to erect the building. He laid the foundation the 7th of June, 1566, and, in November, 1567, completed what was then called the *Bourse*. In 1570, Elizabeth went in great state from her palace at Somerset-House, to make Sir Thomas a visit at his own house. After dinner, she went to the *Bourse*, visited every part, and then, by sound of trumpet, dignified it with the title of *Royal Exchange*. All the upper part was then, and even at the early part of the last century, laid out in shops, which, on this occasion, were filled with the richest productions of the universe, to shew her majesty the commercial prosperity of her dominions. This structure perished in the great fire. It was rebuilt in its present magnificent form, by the city and the company of mercers, at the expence of 80,000*l.* which, for a considerable time, involved the undertakers in a large debt. It was completed in 1669, and on September

September 28th, in that year, was opened by the lord mayor, Sir William Turner, who congratulated the merchants on the occasion. It now occupies a large space of ground in Cornhill: the place for the meeting of merchants being a quadrangle of considerable size, adorned with statues. That of Sir Thomas Gresham is in one corner, in the dress of his own times.

A figure of Sir John Barnard graces another part. The rest are kings, which, (as far as Charles,) with that of Sir Thomas, were chiefly executed by Gabriel Cibber: that of Charles II. in the centre, was undertaken by Gibbons, but done by Quillin of Antwerp; above stairs are the statues of Charles I. and II. and another of the illustrious founder, by John Bushnell, an artist of inferior merit, in the reign of William III. The statues of George I. and II. are by Rysbrack; his present Majesty's by Wilton, which was erected in March, 1764. The statue of Charles II. in the area, was a few years since replaced by another, in a Roman habit, by Mr. Spiller.

Within this building is the celebrated coffee-house, called Lloyd's, the resort of the superior merchants, underwriters, and captains of trading vessels, where business to an immense amount is daily transacted with liberality and honour; and where on many late occasions, the acts and declarations of those who frequent the house, have shewn, that in the breast of the British Merchant, the spirit of commerce is perfectly compatible with that of loyalty, patriotism, and charity.

The present building of the Royal Exchange is highly finished, and much admired by persons conversant in architecture. The steeple, which is very handsome, has for a vane, a gilt grasshopper, which is the crest of Sir Thomas Gresham.

SOMERSET HOUSE. Another very considerable place of business, though formerly a palace, is Somerset House, situated in the Strand. It was founded on the site of several churches and other buildings, which were levelled for the purpose, by order of the protector Somerset, in 1549. After his execution, his palace fell to the crown. In this palace, Queen Elizabeth resided at certain times, Anne of Denmark kept her court, and Catherine, Queen of Charles II. dwelt during a portion of the life of her volatile spouse, and continued after his death, until she retired into her native country.

The architecture of Old Somerset House, was the mixture of Grecian and Gothic, introduced into England in the reign preceding its erection. The back-front, and the water gate, were built from a beautiful design of Inigo Jones, after the

year 1623. A chapel was begun by him in that year, and afterwards finished. It was intended for the use of the Infanta of Spain, the designed spouse of Charles I. when Prince of Wales; but on the failure of that romantic match, it served for the uses of the professors of her religion. This palace was improved and beautified by the Queen dowager, Henrietta Maria, in 1662, when she flattered herself with the hopes of passing the remainder of her days in England. At an early period of the present reign, this palace was settled by parliament on the Queen, but afterward exchanged for Buckingham House. Somerset House was then taken down and rebuilt on an extensive and magnificent scale, on a plan of Sir William Chambers, and the several parts were allotted to the use of several public offices and institutions, with appropriate habitations for the principal persons employed.

While yet unfinished, it was described in the following terms, by Sir William Chambers, in a statement submitted by him to the House of Commons, in 1780. The building which faces the Strand, extends in front 135 feet, is 61 feet deep, and has two wings, each 46 feet wide, and 42 in depth; the whole being seven story high, is faced with Portland stone, built with hard Greystock bricks, Russian timber, and the best materials of all kinds; and is covered, part with copper, and part with lead, or Westmoreland slate. All the fronts of this structure are decorated with a rustic arcade basement, a Corinthian order of columns and pilasters, enriched windows, balustrades, statues, masks, medallions, and various other ornamental works, necessary to distinguish this principal and most conspicuous part of the design; which being in itself trifling when compared with the whole, required not only particular forms and proportions, but likewise some profusion of ornaments, to mark its superiority. Decorations too have been more freely employed in the vestibule of entrance, and in all the public apartments of this building, than will be necessary in the remainder of the work; because the vestibule opens to the most frequented street in London, is a general passage to every part of the whole design; and the apartments are intended for the reception of useful learning and polite arts, they being set apart for the Royal Academy, the Royal Society, and the Society of Antiquaries.

The work just described forms the upper part of a large quadrangular court, being in width 210, and in depth 296 feet, which is to be surrounded with buildings 54 feet deep, and six story high, containing the navy, and the navy-pay, the victualling, and the sick and hurt offices, the ordnance office, the stamp, salt, and tax-offices, the surveyor general

of crown lands, and the offices of the dutchies of Lancaster and Cornwall, also the offices of the two auditors of imprests and the pipe, the treasurer's remembrancer, the clerk of the estreats, and comptroller of the pipe, with various apartments for secretaries, and other persons whose residence in their several offices, has been judged convenient for the public service. The river front extends 800 feet. This work is likewise all faced with stone, is built of the best materials, in the most substantial manner possible, and set on brick foundations, a great part of them laid in the bed of the river, with various expensive but necessary precautions, and others sunk through loose made-ground, 10, 12, and even 16 feet deep. The greatest part of the vaults too, surrounding the areas of this large quadrangle are turned, as also a great part of the crosspassage of communication from the area on one side to those on the other, which are all built of hard greystocks, with stone plinths, necessarily set in most parts on very deep brick foundations. Besides the progress made in the extensive works already mentioned, the foundations are laid at a very considerable expence, in the river, for the embankment, to the extent of 438 feet, by a width of 46 feet, upon which is raised a rustic granite basement 13 feet 7 inches high, with a range of arched stone galleries and apartments built thereon; the arches support the street of the terrace, which is a singularly beautiful walk, affording a most delightful view. The cost was computed at 250,000*l.* but a much greater sum was expended.

WHITEHALL. Another palace of ancient days, now converted principally into offices for public business, is that of Whitehall. This mansion was originally built by Hubert de Burgh, earl of Kent, the great, the persecuted justiciary of England, in the reign of Henry III. He bequeathed it to the blackfriars in Holborn, and they disposed of it to Walter de Grey, archbishop of York, in 1248. It became, for centuries, the residence of the prelates of that see, and was styled York-House. In it, Wolsey took his final leave of greatness. Henry VIII. became possessed of it about the year 1529, by the forfeiture of his fallen servant: the antient palace of Westminster having sometime before suffered greatly by fire. From this time it became the residence of our princes, till it was almost wholly destroyed by fire in 1697. Holbein executed a most beautiful gate at Whitehall, built with bricks of two colours, glazed, and disposed in a tessellated fashion. The top, and that of an elegant tower on each side, were embattled. On each front were four busts in baked clay, in proper colours,

colours, which resisted to the last every attack of the weather; possibly this was the artificial stone revived in the last century. This structure was sacrificed to conveniency, as was another in 1723, built at the same time, but of far inferior beauty. The last blocked up the road to King-street, and was called King's gate. Henry built it as a passage to the park, the tennis-court, bowling green, cockpit, and tilt-yard.

In the time of James I. Whitehall was in a most ruinous state. He determined to rebuild it in a very princely manner, and worthy of the residence of the monarchs of the British Empire. He began by pulling down the banquetting rooms, built by Elizabeth. That which bears the name at present, was begun in 1619, from a design of Inigo Jones, in his purest manner, and executed by Nicholas Stone, master mason and architect to the king: it was finished in two years, and cost 17,000*l.* but was only a small part of a vast plan left un-executed by reason of the unhappy times which succeeded. The cieling of this noble room cannot be sufficiently admired; it was painted by Rubens, who had 3000*l.* for his work. It is said that he was assisted in the execution by his scholar Jordaens. The subject is the Apotheosis of James I.; it forms nine compartments, one of the middle represents our pacific monarch on his earthly throne, turning with horror from Mars, and others of the discordant deities, and, as it were, giving himself up to the amiable goddesses he always cultivated, to her attendants, Commerce and all the fine arts. This fine performance is painted on canvas, and is in good preservation. The banquetting house has been many years converted into a chapel. In 1724, George I. ordered that the duty of preaching in this chapel, should be performed by twenty-four priests, one half of whom were to be fellows of the university of Oxford, and the other of Cambridge; two of them to be recommended monthly by the dean of the king's chapel, with salaries of 30*l.* per annum. The first sermon under this regulation was preached on Easter-Sunday, April 5, 1724. Before the banquetting house, on a scaffold erected for the occasion, Charles I. was beheaded, on the 30th of January, 1648-9. The king passed from the banquetting house to the place of his murder, through one of the windows.

From a complete plan of this great palace, taken by John Fisher in 1680 and engraven by Vertue in 1747, it appears that it extended along the river, and in front along the present Parliament and Whitehall-street, as far as Scotland-yard; and on the other side of those streets, to the turning into Spring-Garden, beyond the Admiralty, looking into Saint

Saint James's Park. Charles the Second, his queen, the duke of York, Prince Rupert, the duke of Monmouth, all the great officers, and all the courtly train, had lodgings within these walls; and all the royal family had their different offices, such as kitchens, cellars, pantries, spiceries, cyder-house, bake-house, wood yards, coal yards, and slaughter house.

At present, that part of the site of Whitehall-Palace, which lies along the river, is occupied by the houses of some of the nobility and gentry; among which the earl of Fife's and the duke of Buccleugh's are the most considerable. The banquetting house is on the east-side of Parliament-street; and the Horse Guards, the Treasury, the Admiralty and other buildings, stand on the west, within the limits of the old palace.

The principal public offices now included in the site of this palace, are the Horse-Guards, including the office of the secretary at war, the Admiralty, and the Treasury.

In the vacant part of Privy Garden, is still to be seen a noble statue in brass, of James II. executed by Grinlyn Gibbons, the year before he abdicated the throne. The artist received 300*l.* for his performance.

GUILDHALL. The great public hall of the city of London is placed at the northern extremity of King-street, Cheapside. A more ancient structure, supposed to have been erected for the same purposes in the days of Edward the Confessor, stood in the street now called Aldermanbury.

The present building was begun in 1411, the 12th of Henry IV. by Thomas Knowles, then mayor, and by his brethren the aldermen. Toward the charge, the companies gave great benevolences, and offences were pardoned in consideration of sums of money, which were expended on this work: extraordinary fees were also imposed, and fines, amerciaments, and other extortionate levies employed, during ten years, for the completion of this building.

In 1415, Henry V. granted the city free passage for four boats by water, and as many carts by land, with servants to each, to bring lime, rag-stone, and free-stone, for the work of Guildhall. The executors of Whittington, gave 35*l.* toward paving the hall, and glazed several of the windows; in each of which the arms of that distinguished merchant were emblazoned. The foundation of the Mayor's court was laid in the third year of the reign of Henry VI. and of the porch, on the south side of the Mayor's court, in the following year. Then was built the Mayor's chamber, and the council chamber, with other rooms above stairs. Another new council chamber, with a handsome room over it, appointed for an

archive, to preserve the books and records belonging to the city, and another under it, were finished in 1615. But the lord mayor and aldermen kept their first court in the new council chamber, the 7th of November, 1625; Sir John Knolles, knight and alderman, being then lord mayor. Last, in the time of Henry VI. a stately porch, entering the great hall, was erected; the front, toward the south, being beautified with images of stone, representing, according to some, the cardinal virtues; and according to others, queens and illustrious ladies, benefactresses to the city. It is conjectured that the fiction of their representing cardinal virtues was invented to preserve them from the misjudging fury of those, who, about the time of the reformation, thought they shewed a commendable zeal for religion, by destroying images, as relics of popish idolatry. These stone statues are venerable for their antiquity, and over-living the great fire of London, which greatly injured the building. After this event, Guildhall was restored in 1669, and finished in its present state, except the stone front, which was substituted for one more ancient, and completed in 1789.

The hall is a very noble room, being 153 feet long, 48 broad, and 55 in height to the roof, which is flat, divided into pannels. The floor is of stone: the walls are adorned on the northern and southern sides, with four Gothic demi-pillars, painted white, and veined with blue, the capitals being gilded. In this hall are portraits of some of our sovereigns, and of several judges, among which are Sir Matthew Hale, and his eleven contemporary judges, who composed differences between landlord and tenant, after the great fire: and that of the earl of Camden, Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and afterward Lord Chancellor. There are also marble monuments, the one of alderman Beckford, voted during his life, in testimony of the city's approbation of a reply which he made to his majesty, at St. James's; the other to the earl of Chatham, voted after his death, in gratitude for his illustrious services. Others in commemoration of the valour of Lord Nelson, and the patriotism of Mr. Pitt are in preparation.

Within the hall, opposite to the great door, is a balcony, in the front of which is a clock and dial, in a curious frame of oak; at the four corners, are carved the four cardinal virtues; and, on the top, time, with a clock on each side of him. On each side of the balcony is a giant of an enormous size, with a black and bushy beard; one holding a long staff, with a ball stuck with spikes, hanging at the end of it; the other an halbert. They are supposed to be an ancient Briton and a Saxon:

Saxon : this balcony is supported by four iron pillars, in the form of palm trees.

Under the balcony is a flight of steps, leading to various offices. On the right hand are those belonging to the Chamberlain ; one where he sits to make freemen, and perform other duties of his office, and the other the treasury. Fronting the steps is the court of King's Bench. On the left, that of the court of Common Pleas, and up stairs, the court of Exchequer. At the back of the hall is a very elegant room for the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, to hold their courts in. In the common council chamber is a capital collection of paintings, presented to the city of London by the late public-spirited alderman Boydell.

The first time this hall was used on festive occasions, was by Sir John Shaw, goldsmith, knighted in the field of Bosworth. After building good kitchens and other offices, in the year 1500 he gave here the Mayor's feast, which before had usually been done in Grocers' Hall. These entertainments at length grew to such excess, that, in the time of Philip and Mary, a sumptuary law was made to restrain the expence both of provisions and liveries. Since that time however, luxury has again found its way into the city, and they who have partaken of the splendid hospitality of the Lord Mayor's inauguration dinner, will be among the last to vote for the retrenchment of a repast so convivial and joyous.

Adjacent to the hall, is Guildhall chapel, or college, a Gothic building, founded by Peter Fanlore, Adam Francis, and Henry Frowick, citizens, about the year 1299. The establishment was a warden, seven priests, three clerks, and four choiristers. Edward VI. granted it to the mayor and commonalty of the city of London. Here used to be service once a week, and also at the election of the mayor, and before the Mayor's feast, to deprecate indigestions, and all plethoric evils. At present, divine service is discontinued, the chapel being used as a justice room. Adjoining to it once stood a fair library ; furnished with books belonging to Guildhall, built by the executors of the famous Whittington.

The causes at law determined within the city are tried in the courts already described in Guildhall ; there are in the metropolis several other buildings wherein the business of civil and criminal justice is transacted, the chief of which may here be mentioned. Westminster-hall, it may be recollected, has been already noticed in Vol. II. p. 526.

OLD BAILEY. The Session-house in the street known by this name, is for the trial of prisoners accused of felonies within

within London and Middlesex, and some inferior offences in London. The sessions are held eight times in the year, and, as by charter, the lord mayor has a right to preside, and the aldermen to sit; they come attended by their proper officers, the recorder and common serjeant; and three of the twelve judges attend in rotation to hold these important sessions. The court is spacious and commodious, contiguous to the county gaol, Newgate, where the prisoners are confined, and constructed with due attention to that change of air which is necessary to prevent contagion from infectious diseases. At the upper end of the court is the bench for the judges; below them a table, at which are placed the counsel and solicitors, and in front of them the clerk of the arraigns, with his attendant officers. On the left hand of those who sit in the same aspect with the judges is the box for the jury; opposite them the box for the witnesses, and at the other end of the court the bar, where the prisoner is placed. Above the jury is the box for students, and around the upper part of the hall, are galleries to which strangers are admitted on paying moderate fees. The London and Middlesex juries sit alternately, and for those who are not engaged in trying the cause before the court, a box is provided, and there are suitable offices without.

CLERKENWELL. The Session-house on Clerkenwell-green is for the trial of misdemeanors, petty larcenies, and appeals against the acts and convictions of magistrates, in the county of Middlesex only. The sessions are held eight times in the year, and the grand jury, which sits within these walls, finds and returns bills for offences to be tried, not only here, but at the Old Bailey. The session-house was originally in St. John's-street, and was called Hicks's Hall. James I. in the year 1610, granted his letters patent, bearing date June 17, for a piece of ground, containing 128 feet of assize from north to south in length, and 32 from east to west in breadth, reserving a way of 20 feet on every side thereof, for the use of Sir Thomas Lake, and others, justices of the peace for the county of Middlesex, to erect a session-house, prison, and house of correction. They erected the session-house in 1612; but the ground being found to be too small for the prison; they purchased a piece of land at the east end of St. James's-street, where the prison was built. In 1777, the hall having become extremely ruinous; and its vicinity to Smithfield market, being found to interrupt business, the justices petitioned the House of Commons for permission to rebuild it, on the same site, to take in part of the highway, and raise a sum
not

not exceeding 12,000*l.* for the purpose. Their petition being finally successful, a piece of freehold ground was purchased, at the west end of Clerkenwell-green, for about 2000*l.*; and 11,000*l.* were to be borrowed, for erecting the building. The front is of stone, with a rustic basement, and before it a railed area. The door is approached by six steps. Two windows on each side in deep arches. Four Ionic pillars, and two pilasters, support an architrave, frieze, and cornice, with a pediment over the pillars. The windows are alternately arched and flat on the tops. Over the middle windows is a medallion of his Majesty; over the others, swords, fasces, &c.; above the flat ones reliefs of Justice, &c.; and in the tympanum the county arms. The roof forms a dome in the centre. The remainder of the building is of brick, and therefore plain. The court is upstairs; a light, airy room, somewhat fancifully, but not altogether commodiously constructed.

OTHER HALLS. Besides these, there is a court-house, or Guildhall at Westminster, for transacting the business of the session, arising peculiarly within that city; and a similar session is holden for London in Guildhall.

POLICE. Many persons whose attention is strongly devoted to considerations on the means of preventing crimes, and securing property, lament the state of the police of the metropolis, as injurious to the community, and disgraceful to the legislature. Others, on the contrary, looking at the state of society with a more extensive and liberal consideration, admire the general security that prevails, without restraint on individual freedom, and know how to value a social system which by removing from the guilty the irritating presence of spies and informers, renders criminals less ferocious, and confines depredators to attacks on property alone, without injury to the person of the sufferer. The advocates of a strict police expatiate with pleasure on the system established under the old government of France, and imitated by some other nations on the continent; while their opponents glory in living in a country where the operations of the police are not perceptible amidst our ordinary transactions, but its aid is only resorted to on extraordinary occasions. While the former point to what they call a black catalogue of crimes and a horrible series of executions; the latter assert that the crimes are in general too slight to merit capital punishment; but that, even admitting the number of depredators to be as great as they are represented, they are insignificant in proportion to the immense quantity of property which is daily exposed to depredation, and guarded
only

only by the love of right, and fear of the law, which restrain offenders without the intervention of a burdensome and harassing police.

The police of the metropolis is thus described and commented on by Mr. Colquhoun, in a treatise on the subject, which has been much admired, and very generally read.

Twenty-six magistrates, forming that respectable body, comprehending the lord mayor and aldermen, sit in rotation every forenoon, at the Mansion-house, and at Guildhall, and take cognizance of all matters of the police within the ancient jurisdiction of the city of London; while twenty-six established magistrates, appointed for every other part of the metropolis, including the River police, having particular offices or courts of justice assigned them at convenient distances in Westminster, Middlesex, and Surrey, sit every day (Sunday excepted) both in the morning and evening, for the purpose of executing all the multifarious duties connected with the office of a justice of the peace, which unavoidably occur in large societies.

The offices are at the following places, each having three magistrates, except the marine police, which has only two. Bow-street, Covent-garden, the old Rotation office; seven established by stat. 32 Geo. III. c. 53.* and situated at Queen's-square, Westminster; Great Marlborough-street, Oxford-road; Hatton-garden, Holborn; Worship-street, Finsbury-square; Lambeth-street, Whitechapel; High-street, Shadwell; and Union-street, Southwark. There is also a marine police at Wapping New-stairs, established in 1798.

This institution of established justices, Mr. Colquhoun, proceeds (except with regard to the three magistrates at Bow-street, and the justices at the marine police office) was suggested to the legislature, in consequence of the pressure felt by the public, from the want of some regular and properly constituted tribunals for the distribution of justice; where the system should be uniform; and where the purity of the magistrates, and their regular attendance, might insure to the people, the adjustment of their differences, at the least possible expence; and the assistance of gratuitous advice in every difficulty; as well as official aid, in all cases within the sphere of the magistrates in their respective districts.

The duty of these established magistrates, (in conjunction with other justices of the peace, who find it convenient to give their assistance,) extends also to several important judi-

* Since the publication of Mr. Colquhoun's treatise, this act has been repealed, and the powers and duties of the magistrates more accurately defined by stat. 42 Geo. III. c. 76.

cial proceedings; where, in a great variety of instances, they are empowered and required to hear and determine, in a summary way; particularly in cases relative to the customs, excise, and stamps; the game-laws, hawkers and pedlars; pawn-brokers, friendly societies, highways, hackney-coaches, carts, and other carriages, quakers and others refusing to pay tythes, appeals of defaulters in parochial rates, misdemeanors committed by persons unlawfully pawning property not their own, bakers for short weight, &c.; journeymen leaving their services in different trades; labourers not complying with their agreements; disorderly apprentices; alehouse keepers keeping disorderly houses, nuisances by different acts of parliament; acts of vagrancy by fraudulent lottery insurers, fortune-tellers, persons of evil fame found in avenues to public places, with an intent to rob: as well as a multitude of other offences, in which justices have power to proceed to conviction and punishment, either by fine or imprisonment.

The duty of the magistrates also extends to a vast number of other objects, such as licensing public-houses, and establishing rules and orders for publicans, watching over the conduct of publicans, swearing in, charging and instructing parochial constables and headboroughs from year to year, with regard to their duty; issuing warrants for privy searches; and in considering the cases of persons charged with being disorderly persons, or rogues and vagabonds, liable to be punished under the act of the 17th of Geo. II. cap. 5. and subsequent acts of Parliament; in making orders to parish officers, beadles, and constables, in a variety of cases; in parish removals, in billeting soldiers, in considering the cases of poor persons applying for assistance, or admission to workhouses, in granting certificates and orders to the wives of persons serving in the militia; and also in attesting recruits for the army; in attending the general and quarter sessions of the peace, and in visiting the workhouses, bridewells, and prisons.

In addition to these various duties, many criminal cases occur in the course of a year, which are examined for the purpose, if necessary, of being sent to superior tribunals for trials: such as charges of treason, murder, coining, and uttering base money, arson, manslaughter, forgery, burglary, larceny, sedition, felonies of various descriptions, conspiracies, frauds, riots, assaults, and misdemeanors of different kinds:—all which unavoidably impose upon every official magistrate, a weight of business requiring great exertion, and an unremitting attention to the public interest, in the due execution of this very important trust.

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The power of the police magistrates in preventing crimes was greatly increased by the statute 42 Geo. III. c. 76. which recites, that whereas divers ill-disposed and suspected persons and reputed thieves frequent the avenues to places of public resort, and the streets and highways, with intent to commit felony; and although their evil purposes are sufficiently manifest, the power of justices of the peace to demand of them sureties for their good behaviour, has not been of sufficient effect to prevent them from carrying their evil purposes into execution; and enacts, That, it may be lawful for any constable, headborough, patrol, or watchman, to apprehend such persons and convey them before any justice of the peace; and if it shall appear, upon the oath of one credible witness, that such person is a person of evil fame, and a reputed thief, and he shall not be able to give a satisfactory account of himself, and of his way of living, and it shall also appear, to the satisfaction of the justice, that there is just ground to believe that he was in the street, or highway, with such intent as aforesaid, every such person shall be deemed a rogue and a vagabond within the intent and meaning of the vagrant act. But if the party thinks himself aggrieved, he may give bail and appeal to the session, who may, if the conviction is affirmed, adjudge him to be a rogue and vagabond; but not sentence him in any case to more than six months imprisonment in the whole, including any time he may have been previously detained.

PRISONS. The various prisons of the metropolis for detention and punishment of criminals, and safe custody of debtors are next to be described. The principal source of information has been Mr. Nield's account of the various prisons in England, Scotland, and Wales, included in his account of the Society for relief of persons imprisoned for small debts.

NEWGATE. This prison derives its name from the gate which, till within these few years, formed a part of it, and stood a little beyond the Session-house in the Old Bailey: as a military way has been traced under it, there can be no doubt but there had been one during the time the city was possessed by the Romans: but the place had been made up, and no vestiges of it left. The gate which supplied its place, is supposed by Stowe to have been erected between the years 1108 and 1128, when Richard Beauveyes, bishop of London, by enlarging the precincts of St. Paul's, had obstructed the usual way under Ludgate, and made this new outlet necessary. Mr. Howel says, that the original name was
Chamberlain

Chamberlain Gate. It had been for ages a prison, even as long ago as the year 1218; and for persons of rank, long before the Tower was used for that purpose. This gate was rebuilt by the executors of the famous Sir Richard Whittington, out of the effects he had allotted for works of charity: his statue, with the cat, remained in a niche to its final demolition, on the rebuilding of the present prison. It was destroyed in the fire of 1666, and rebuilt in its late form. It had one great arch, and one postern for passengers: and on each side a half hexagon tower.

The old prison of Newgate was described to the Legislature, as an accumulation of misery and inconvenience, which could only be remedied by almost rebuilding it altogether at a calculated expence of 50,000*l*. In 1778 the corporation of London had expended 52,585*l*. upon the rebuilding of the prison; and they gave up to the public, for the site of that gaol and the Sessions-house, a piece of freehold ground 600 feet in front on the Old Bailey, and about 50 on Newgate-street, which was worth ten shillings per foot running measure, the latter was valued at fifteen shillings for building on, and the rent at 300*l*. per annum. In addition to those liberal proceedings, they expended 14,464*l*. of their own money, in erecting the Session-house, and 6,250*l*. for the purchase of freehold houses to be taken down for making avenues to the gaol. Many unforeseen expences attended the execution of this great work; one of which was the necessity of sinking the foundations forty feet in depth, owing to the site being on that of the ditch of London-wall; another was the charge of shoring neighbouring houses, to prevent their falling. The sum expended in this way amounted to 19,000*l*. Newgate was nearly completed, when the mob, influenced by the frenzy of Lord George Gordon, in June 1780, rendered it a mere shell, by burning every thing combustible within it. The felons confined even in the strongest holds were released; stones of two or three tons in weight, to which the doors of their cells were fastened, were raised by that resistless species of crow, well known to house-breakers by the name of the *Pigs-foot*. Such was the violence of the fire, that the iron bars of the windows were eaten through; and the adjacent stones vitrified. Mr. Dance estimated the sum necessary for repairs at 30,000*l*.; and the House of Commons commenced the work by a vote of 10,000*l*.; subsequent applications were made by the corporation, which enabled them to finish it as we now see it, with a black rustic wall, broken
at

at intervals by niches partially filled with statues and grated windows.

The salary of the keeper of Newgate is 450*l.*; and the prisoners pay 8*s.* 10*d.* fees, and 13*s.* 6*d.* on the master's side, or 9*s.* 6*d.* on the common side, garnish. Those unable to comply with the latter demands are under the necessity of cleansing the wards; the materials for which purpose, with coals, candles, and wood, are purchased from the garnish money.

The chaplain or ordinary of Newgate, receives 265*l.* per annum; for that sum he reads prayers twice on Sundays, on Wednesdays and Fridays, preaches on Sunday morning, repeats private prayers with those under sentence of death on Tuesday and Thursday, and, after the report, attends criminals twice a day, and on the morning of execution. A surgeon at a salary of 100*l.* attends daily; the medicines used by him are paid for by the corporation of London.

Every debtor is allowed a loaf of the best bread, weighing twenty ounces, and a pound and a half of potatoes; the same class of unfortunates on the poor and women's side have 112*lb.* of beef weekly, termed *clods* and *stickings*, provided by the sheriffs; besides this allowance, they have various donations equally divided.

Mr. Nield, in his work on prisons, says, The part appropriated for debtors, three-fourths of the north-west angle of the prison, consists of fourteen wards, twenty-three feet by fifteen feet six inches, and eleven feet high, for the men; and two wards for the women, one thirty-six feet by fifteen, the other eighteen feet by fifteen. As neither bed nor bedstead is provided, those who cannot procure them are allowed a rug. The area for the men, well supplied with water, is forty-nine feet six inches, by thirty-one feet six inches; that for women, is forty-nine feet six inches, by fifteen feet nine inches; the sexes are separated by a wall fifteen feet high; debtors are permitted to work if they can obtain it, but there is none provided; 285 men, and 40 women have been at once in Newgate for debt. Two rooms are appropriated for sick felons of both sexes; and, as there is no infirmary for debtors, they are compelled to lie, when ill, with the felons. The chapel is plain and neat, and the most perfect order is preserved during prayers.

GILTSPUR-STREET COMPTER. The origin of this prison, Mr. Nield observes, is somewhat enveloped in obscurity; but, in Stowe's Survey of London, the following record
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(made in the reign of Henry I.) is recited:—*Rex vic. London. salutem: Ex gravi querelâ B. capt. et detent. in prisona nostra de Cripplegate pro £.10 quas coram Radulpho de Sandivico tunc custod. civitatis nostræ London. et I. de Blackwell civis recognit. debit, &c.* From this record, it appears that Cripplegate, which was one of the four original gates of this city, was then a prison, as the Compter now is, for citizens and others for debt or trespass: and was rebuilt in 1244, and again in 1491, and was last repaired in 1663. In the mean time, and in the thirteenth century, a prison was built for the reception of night-walkers, and other suspicious persons, which, from its shape, was called the 'Tun, and was situated on Cornhill. Afterward there was a prison in Bread-street, pertaining to the sheriffs, which was called the Compter, and, in 1518, seems to have been recognized by the act for establishing the Court of Conscience, which empowered its commissioners to commit to one of the Competers for debts not exceeding forty shillings; but now, by subsequent acts, extended to five pounds. In this compter prisoners were received until the year 1552; when, by reason of the keeper's misconduct, they were removed to a new compter in Wood-street, provided by the city, and built for that purpose, which was burned in the general conflagration of 1666, and rebuilt more commodious than before, and continued to receive prisoners until the second day of April, 1791, when the prisoners were removed to the present compter in Giltspur-street.

It appears necessary here to remark, that each sheriff of London has a court of record, as well as a compter, where he presides. These courts are now held at Guildhall, every Wednesday and Friday, for actions, entered at this compter, and on every Thursday and Saturday for actions entered at the Poultry, excepting holidays, and a vacation in the month of August; and each sheriff has his office at his respective compter, where his clerk-fitter attends for entering actions, &c.; and also to discharge such debtors as become entitled to their release.

Giltspur-Street Compter, is now appropriated for the reception of debtors, felons, and other offenders, and also for vagrants, and night charges, (the watch houses in this city not being permitted to retain prisoners therein;) but the constable of the night must forthwith commit them to the compter in his district; from whence a list of the night charges so committed, is the next morning returned to the lord mayor, or one of the aldermen, in order that the parties may be examined,

touching the cause of their commitment, and be either discharged, bailed, or re-committed, to answer for their respective offences, according to due course of law.

The prisoners are divided into four classes, viz. those for debt, felony, misdemeanors and assaults, and vagrants; and the prison into nine separate and distinct yards, with various degrees of accommodation. There are also very convenient cold and hot baths, to which all prisoners have free access as necessity requires, and at convenient seasons.

The allowance to prisoners of all descriptions, is at present ten ounces of wheaten bread, daily; one pound of rice, and about five pounds of potatoes each, weekly; coals, and other gifts by the lord mayor and sheriffs; and broken victuals from the Old and New London Taverns frequently.

Paupers brought to this compter, as such, in order to be removed to their parishes, or otherwise relieved, are especially subsisted, and frequently cloathed.

On New-year's day, at Easter, and some uncertain day after, one pound of beef, one pint of porter, and one loaf, value three-halfpence, or potatoes in lieu thereof, are given by the lord mayor and sheriffs, who also occasionally give coals, according to their discretion. There are also some permanent donations of bread and meat at stated periods, which, together with the sheriff's seven stone of meat weekly, belongs to the charity wards only, and are distributed among such prisoners in the said wards, as have attended and properly demeaned themselves in the chapel during divine service on the preceding Sunday. The chapel clerk, by order of the court of aldermen, receives half a crown every Sunday for assisting the chaplain, and setting the psalm.

Money is paid by several of the city companies, by the common council of Farringdon Within, by the trustees of Mrs. Ashton's charity, and others, toward the release of debtors in this and other prisons, and is most frequently applied toward the discharge of prisoners who cannot obtain their liberty without undertaking to pay some further sum in addition to the money raised by such donations, and who are thereby prevented from availing themselves of the bounty of the society for relief of debtors held in Craven-street in the Strand. All the donations belonging to the charity wards are delivered to one of the prisoners, who acts as steward; in whose name, witnessed by the keeper, all the receipts are signed, and given under the common seal of the prison: this steward receives also the subscriptions before mentioned; and himself pays a rent to the general stock for the use of two closets, which

which he again lets to his own advantage; he advances money upon the credit of the donations, out of which he reimburses himself, as they become due; pays five per cent to a collector, furnishes the charity wards with a constant supply of coals, wood, salt, candles, &c. besides paying a weekly allowance to a basket woman to collect broken victuals at the taverns, and for other messages, on account of the said wards; also contributes toward the support of such common side debtors, as may, by the surgeon's order, be placed in the sick ward; pays also a weekly allowance to the scavenger, and his assistant, called the twelver; and is of real use to the prison at large. This plan of the application of the donations was first adopted by Mr. Kirby, when keeper of Wood-Street Compter, and appears to be the most beneficial to the unfortunate, as every comfort to be procured by the donations, is thereby equally and impartially afforded; no disputes can arise from the quarterly division of money, nor can the prison be defrauded, as the steward is obliged to submit his accounts to be audited by four of the senior prisoners; and though elected by the general suffrages of the charity-wards, cannot be dispossessed so long as he shall act soberly, honestly, and for the general advantage, and shall not be guilty of breach of the trust reposed in him by the keeper.

No expence attends the commitment of prisoners to this Compter, either upon civil or criminal process; nor does any expence attend any person's confinement, unless at their own request, they are admitted on the master's side. Upon civil actions brought in the sheriff's court, there are fees of moderate amount, and an expence is incurred by prisoners of all descriptions, upon their discharge.

The rules and orders for the government of this prison, were signed, 27th November, 1792, by Lords Kenyon and Loughborough, and by aldermen Crosby, Anderson, and Combe; they relate principally to debtors; the execution is vested in the keeper and his turnkeys.

POULTRY COMPTEER. In this prison there were formerly for master's side debtors, fifteen rooms betwixt the inner and the outer gates; for the use of which, each prisoner paid two shillings and sixpence per week. For common side debtors, six wards within the inner gate; two of them on the ground floor called the King's ward, and the Prince's ward; in the former of which, November 12, 1803, were seven debtors, and in the latter the same number.

On the first floor, or story, were the women's ward, with two debtors, the middle ward (so called probably from its being between the women's and Jews' ward,) containing six debtors;

and the Jews ward, with a separate staircase leading to it, in which were two Jew debtors. These debtors had ten wives and fifteen children living with them in the prison, and were allowed one rug each by the city, but were expected to provide their own beds.

To each ward there is a fire-place. In one of the rooms on the second floor, called the *Pump-room*, the debtors had the convenience of water. The court yard here is very small, paved with flag stones, and had water continually running through it. In the passage court was a day-room for felons, and a small one adjoining to it for debtors. They have iron-grated windows, opposite the public-house, kept within the gates of the prison, and from which they were constantly supplied with liquor.

Men felons slept in two strong rooms, planked with oak, and studded with large broad-headed nails, on boards raised about three feet from the ground, having each a rug allowed them: and up stairs was another large room for men, and one for women.

The chapel, which was below, had a gallery for master's side debtors; and the felons, and other criminals, were seated on forms or benches in the area beneath.

At the top of the whole building are spacious leads, where the master's side debtors were occasionally allowed to take the air. The keeper, however, or turnkey, was always with them, because the adjacent houses were thought capable of furnishing the ready means for escape.

Such was this prison in the year 1803, but the building being in a very dilapidated state, and in many parts shored up with props; it became at length so dangerous, not only to the lives of the prisoners, but of other persons resorting thither, that in July, 1804, an act passed, (with an expedition suited to the supposed pressure of the occasion,) for the removal of "all the debtors and prisoners here in custody, to
" the Gilt-Spur-street Compter, or to such other safe, secure,
" and convenient place within the city, as should be approved
" of by the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons thereof,
" in common council assembled." It was also ordained to
" be lawful for the sheriffs, from time to time, and until the
" Poultry Compter shall have been rebuilt, or made secure,
" and fit and commodious for the reception of prisoners,
" or another compter shall be provided, to receive, keep, and
" detain them in such place of intended removal." This took place in consequence without delay, and prisoners continued to be received in the Giltspur-street Compter, till the 20th of May, 1805; when the very crowded state of that tempo-
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rary receptacle, occasioned a necessity of sending all the night charges to their old place of destination, in the Poultry.

Nor was this step sufficient; for in August, 1806, the Giltspur-street Compter, not being found large enough to contain the criminal prisoners of both gaols, they were likewise re-confined to the Poultry. This ruinous and tottering pile, therefore, (so long before deemed hardly tenable,) has thus been made the only place of confinement for the criminals of the two compters; and the chapel of the present, being turned into a sleeping room, for want of space, no divine service is performed there.

The result is, that Giltspur-street Compter is now wholly appropriated to the confinement of the debtors only belonging to both prisons, until a new Poultry Compter shall be provided, or the old one rendered "*safe*," for it can hardly be "*fit*," and commodious for the reception of prisoners.

The two rooms already mentioned, as fronting the public-house, the one set apart for debtors, the other for felons, are shut up; and the Queen's ward, with nearly the whole east end of the prison, have been taken down to prevent their falling. Master's-side felons, or those who can pay for beds, sleep in strong rooms above stairs, to which the access is from the keeper's house. Common side felons have, within the wooden gate, a small court, paved with flag stones, and a miserable room called the Rat-hole, with an iron grated, unglazed window; and two dismal cells to sleep in, upon boards, raised about a yard from the floor, with a rug or two each, according to their number, but no straw. One of these cells is for four prisoners, and the other for two; above are two other rooms, of a similar description. The chapel, since its conversion into a dormitory, has barrack bedsteads laid on the floor.

The women felons are shut up in a dreary place below, called the Mouse-hole; this will hold sixteen prisoners, and is fitted up in the same manner, as the above are for the men. Over it is that which was formerly called the Jews' ward for debtors, but now set apart for the sick.

LUDGATE. This prison was formerly one of the gates of the city of London, and situated on Ludgate-Hill, near the spot where the London Coffee-house now stands. It is at present appropriated for the reception of debtors, being free-men of London, clergymen, proctors, attorneys, or such other persons as the court of lord mayor and aldermen shall from time to time think fit to be removed thither. It is believed to have formerly had the privilege of permitting prison-

ers to go out (with a keeper) for the purpose of calling upon their several creditors, to compromise their debts, or otherwise obtain their discharge; but that custom, whatever might have caused its origin, has many years been discontinued, and cannot now be traced.

About forty-six years ago, when Old Ludgate, (to which the table of fees, and rules and orders for its government, was adapted,) was pulled down, the prisoners were removed to the London Work-house, in Bishopsgate-street, a part whereof was fitted up for that purpose, and where Ludgate prisoners continued to be received until the year 1794, when they were removed to the present prison of Ludgate, adjoining to, and partly encircled by the Compter in Giltspur-street.

Ludgate has one small yard, 25 feet by 10, containing a pump, which supplies spring-water from a well in the Compter; another affording soft water from the river Thames, and a shed, under which is a bathing tub.

The yard leads to eight rooms: the hall fitted up with benches and tables, for the general accommodation of all the prisoners, as a sitting room in the day time, and until they usually retire to rest. It is the custom of this gaol for the prisoners to have access to the yard at all times, either by day or night. The hall has one fire-place, which is supplied by a subscription from the prisoners of six shillings at their entrance, and sevenpence weekly afterwards; and the subsistence of the prisoners is aided by charitable donations; the surplus of which, after payment of certain salaries, is divided quarterly among such prisoners as have been in custody for the space of one month, before the same became due.

All the prisoners find their own beds and bedding, except one rug yearly, which the city allows to such as need it.

BOROUGH COMPTER. The Borough Compter, (vulgarly called *the Clink*,) is under the jurisdiction of the bailiff of Southwark, but controulable by the city of London; and extends its influence over five parishes.

Debtors have one small court-yard, about 19 feet square. On the ground floor, on the right hand, is the women's day and sleeping room, 24 feet, by nine feet six inches. On the left hand is another, intended for men, forty one feet by ten; but the floor of this room, being only of earth or mud, and unfit to sleep on, no use has been made of it for many years, so that the men and women associate promiscuously together in the women's apartments, during the day time.

Above stairs are two rooms of the same size as the former, and these, in 1801, were in good repair. All these rooms have fire-places, but no coals are allowed, no kettles or sauce-pans

pans to cook provisions, no mops, brooms, or pails, to keep the gaol clean; no bedsteads, bedding, nor even straw to lie upon. Hence the debtors are obliged every night to sleep in their clothes upon the boards.

All who are arrested by process, issuing out of the Borough-court, are sent to this prison; and in the house there are two rooms, of about eight feet square, for such as can pay three-pence per night for a bed.

The felons' court yard, is about fourteen feet and a half by eleven feet, and separated from the debtors by a brick wall. Their day apartment, called the Stone-Room, of seventeen feet by twelve, has a fire-place, but no coals are allowed. Over this is their sleeping room, 16 feet by 14, no bedding nor straw. Criminals are confined here only for a night or two, till they are fully committed.

BRIDEWELL. The house for the reception, correction, and reform of idle and disorderly persons, to which this name is rightly given, is situate in the great entrance to London, called Bridge-street Blackfriars, but it may on the whole be more justly termed a hospital than a prison. Not far from the White Friars, near the west side of Fleet ditch, was a well dedicated to St. Bride, or Bridget; this gave name to the parish church, and the palace of Bridewell, which was honoured with the residence of several of our monarchs, even as early as king John. It was formed partly out of the remains of an antient castle, the western *Arx Palatina* of the city, which stood near the little river Fleet, near to the Thames. In 1087, William the Conqueror gave many of the choicest materials toward the rebuilding of St. Paul's cathedral, which had been destroyed by fire: and Henry I. gave as many of the stones, from the walls of the Castle-yard, as served to inclose and form the gates and precinct of the church. Notwithstanding this, the dwelling remained, and became the residence of several of our monarchs. It was much neglected till cardinal Wolsey resided in it, in 1522. To this palace Henry VIII. convened all the abbots, and other heads of religious houses, English and foreign, and squeezed out of them 100,000*l.* in those days an enormous sum. From the Cistercians, who would not own his supremacy, not less than 33,000*l.* This arbitrary prince rebuilt the palace in the space of six weeks, in a most magnificent manner, for the reception of the emperor, Charles V. who visited England in 1522; after all the expence, the emperor lodged in Black-friars, and his suite in the new palace, and a gallery of communication was flung over the ditch, and a passage

cut through the city wall into the emperor's apartments. The king often lodged here, particularly in 1529, when the question of his marriage with queen Catherine was agitated at Black-friars. It fell afterward into decay, and was begged by the pious prelate Ridley, from Edward VI. to be converted to some charitable purpose. That of a house of correction was determined on, for vagabonds of each sex and all denominations: It is also the place of confinement for disobedient and idle apprentices, who are kept separate, in airy cells, and have an allotted task to be performed in a certain time. They, the men and the women, are employed in beating hemp, picking oakum, and packing of goods.

Of the regulations and effects of this prison, the following account was published some years ago, by the Rev. Thomas Bowen, chaplain to the hospital, and minister of Bridewell precinct. "The governors of Bridewell have not been wanting in attention to those prisoners who come under their proper cognizance. To prevent an immediate return to habits either of pilfering or prostitution, leave is given to such prisoners as may desire it, to remain in the hospital for a limited time, after the period of the imprisonment is expired; and pecuniary assistance is afforded to those who appear to deserve it: during the last three years, eight persons only have availed themselves of this permission, and fewer than half that number, it is known, have derived any benefit from it. At the end of whatever period they may continue, there will be the same difficulty in providing for unhappy prostitutes, who have no friends: to put them into honest families, how low or mean soever, is not without danger. While we seek to reform the guilty, it is possible we may spread corruption amongst the innocent. Those, who being fixed in habits of prostitution, are constantly known in the houses of correction, seem objects of farther legal care and animadversion; and perhaps the benefit which the police might derive from their seclusion for a longer period than the law now permits, would not be inconsiderable, as they are, for the most part, associates of the lowest depredators upon the publick. In the case of those prisoners who have been guilty of smaller acts of dishonesty, there is reason to think that much benefit is effected, as very many persons of this description are never seen a second time in the hospital. It is also probable that good is often done to the faulty apprentices, committed by the chamberlain of London. Each prisoner has a convenient solitary cell, he has proper books, and the opportunity of divine service, with prayers appropriate to his situation. Vagrants

grants sent for seven days, previous to their being passed to their respective parishes, are a heavy expence to the hospital. It is not perhaps generally known or considered, that the city of London enjoys the benefit of a house of correction from the revenues of the charity; in other places the expence is defrayed by a rate on the country or district, which is levied upon individuals.

“ The following is a statement of the different classes of prisoners committed in the year 1797.—

Prostitutes, the first time	- - - -	55
Ditto, twice or many times	- - - -	133
Women, for smaller acts of dishonesty, &c. first time	- - - -	36
Ditto ditto twice or oftener	- - - -	7
Men, for smaller acts of dishonesty, &c. first time	- - - -	79
Ditto ditto twice or oftener	- - - -	16
Apprentices, first time	- - - -	21
Ditto, twice or oftener	- - - -	6

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“ I do not give this statement as quite as accurate; there are about thirty others, whom I know not how to class, whether among the vagrant or the disorderly poor. In the above year there were also 979 vagrants committed for seven days, according to act of parliament, and then passed. The total in 1797, was 1377.

“ The following is a statement of the number of vagrant and disorderly poor received into Bridewell Hospital, during the same space of time, at the distance of two hundred years.

In the year 1597, in February, March, and April 710

In———1797, during the same months 273.”

The front of this building, situated on the west side of Bridge-street, Blackfriars, has not for many years exhibited any part of the original palace. At present there is but one vast quadrangle, as the remnants of the old structure which crossed it north and south, have lately been taken down, in order to be rebuilt. A perfectly plain chapel has been erected on the ruins.

The prison's front occupies the south-west corner, and the hall the greater part of the south side. This room is 39 paces in length, and fifteen in breadth, with a handsome chimney-piece at each end, and arcades at the sides. The

The cieling is horizontal, and without other ornament than two flowers where the lustres depend. Facing each other, on the north and south sides, are bow windows, ornamented with semi-domes, brackets, festoons, &c. &c. The other windows are arched, and rows of oval apertures are extended above them. There are several pictures, particularly one of Edward VI. by Hans Holbein.

Bridewell is not only a prison for the dissolute, but an hospital for the education of the industrious youth. Here twenty arts' masters (as they are styled) consisting of decayed tradesmen, such as shoe-makers, taylor, flax-dressers, and weavers, have houses, and receive apprentices, who are instructed in these several trades; the masters receiving the profit of their labours. After the boys have served their time with credit, they are paid ten pounds to begin the world with; and are entitled to the freedom of the city. They are dressed in blue, with a white hat. The procession of these and the children of Christ's Hospital, on Easter Monday and Tuesday, to St. Bride's church, affords to the humane the most pleasing spectacle, as it excites the reflection of the multitudes thus rescued from want, profligacy, and perdition.

The name of this hospital has been appropriated to several prisons throughout the kingdom designed for the reclaiming of the idle and profligate. In the metropolis the name of Bridewell has been given to a prison in Tothill-fields, Westminster, and to one in Clerkenwell.

TOTHILL FIELDS. Over the gate is this Inscription:—

“ There are several sorts of work for the poor of this
 “ parish of St. Margaret's Westminster, as also the county,
 “ according to law; and for such, as will beg, and live
 “ idle, in this city and liberty of Westminster. Anno
 “ 1665.”

At the entrance, on the left-hand, is a room, in which are deposited the bonnets and other articles of clothing, taken from the women prisoners at their coming in.

The room over the gateway is called Newgate-ward, and contains five beds, for the use of which each prisoner pays sixpence a night: two sleep in a bed. If a prisoner has a bed to himself, he pays one shilling per night. The turnkey's sleeping-room adjoins.

On the sides of the area are four narrow court-yards. The first of these, for felons, has a day-room, with a fire place; and two rooms, which are free-wards, with barrack-beds, and one or two blankets each, as the weather is mild

or

or severe. The doors open into the court-yard, and the iron-grated windows are not glazed.

The second, called the Sick-court, is very small: the door of the men's infirmary opens into it; the room is about twenty feet by eleven, and six feet eight inches high, with a fire-place, and two iron-grated windows not glazed; barrack-beds, straw-mattrafs, and two or three blankets each.

The third court is for vagrants, and has a day-room and two sleeping-rooms on the ground floor; one of which is about twenty-five by twelve, and the other eighteen feet by twelve. Both have barrack-beds, and in the winter, blankets are allowed.

The fourth court is for men debtors, and those who are committed for assaults or bastards. Three sleeping rooms open into this court, which are *free wards*, with barrack-beds, loose straw and a blanket each: those who can afford to pay sixpence a night for a bed, sleep in the part of the gaol, called the Old Bridewell; in which there are two rooms, with three beds each.

Women debtors have the narrow passage which leads to the keeper's house to walk in; which being separated from the felons' court by a low paling only, they can at all times converse with them. They have a small day-room, with a fire-place: those who cannot afford to pay for a bed, sleep in the solitary cells, and a blanket is allowed to each.

For faulty apprentices there are four solitary cells on the ground floor, about nine feet seven-inches, by six feet nine-inches, and six feet nine inches high: the upper and lower door-pannels are iron-latticed, and open into a lobby paved with flag-stones, about three feet eleven inches wide, which separates them from the other parts of the prison. Above these are four other cells, with iron-grated windows and wooden blinds, to prevent their looking into the courts. A blanket is allowed to each prisoner.

Here is plenty of water at all times, and the whole prison is washed twice a week; mops, brooms, pails, &c. being allowed by the considerate magistrates.

Women have a comfortable room up stairs, with a fire-place and two glazed windows, at the north-east corner, set apart for an infirmary; with barrack-beds, straw-mattrafs, and two or three blankets each: and adjoining are two sleeping-rooms, with glazed windows, and two beds each, at three shillings and sixpence per week.

The chaplain's access to his desk is from the top of the stair-case; and he has a full view of the two rooms where
men

men and women assemble at divine service. A better chapel is much wanted.

The Old Gate House, Westminster, (a prison, the property of the dean and chapter,) having being taken down, another prison is erected in Tothill-fields, joining to the Bridewell, first inhabited in 1789. It is now entirely appropriated to the women, and has two spacious airy courts, about nineteen yards by fourteen each, and three rooms for dressing provisions, &c. about fifteen feet by ten. To these courts there are four *free wards*, near twenty feet square, with barrack-beds; and one blanket each is allowed during the winter. There are several charitable donations.

HOUSE OF CORRECTION. This prison in Cold Bath-fields, is constructed on the plan of the late Mr. Howard. It was opened in 1794, and at first designed only as a kind of Bridewell, but having suitable accommodations for various descriptions of prisoners, it was applied to their different circumstances. This prison is surrounded by a wall of moderate height. On entering it, after passing the first gate, is the governor's house on the right, which stands in the middle of a large yard; on the left are the work-shops, where the prisoners are employed. The visitor is here reminded of the character of this prison, which is a house of industry. Further on is the office in which the business of the prison is transacted, and a committee room; and the best chapel belonging to any prison in the metropolis. The cells are two hundred and eighteen; each being eight feet three inches long, and six feet three inches wide. Six yards, each having two rooms, of the size of two cells, where two people are lodged. In the cells the penitentiary prisoners are confined till they have finished their tasks, when they are let into the yards at the back of their cells.

The situation and government of this prison having been misrepresented by the factious and malignant, and the opprobrious name of Bastile having been given to it, for the purpose of inflaming the worst passions of the vulgar, a more particular description of it may be allowed. It stands on a level with Swinton-street and Gray's Inn-lane, and not more than six feet lower than Meux's brewhouse in Liquor-pond-street; scarcely lower than Guildford-street; on a level with the Spa-fields; and as high as the roofs of many houses in the space between Gray's Inn-lane and Coppice-row; higher than Clerkenwell workhouse, and the first-floors of the houses at Bagnigge Wells. From Pentonville it appears to be very low, and so does the whole of London. The gaoler's salary

salary is 400*l.* per annum; but neither fees, nor what is termed *garnish* is paid. There is a chaplain, whose salary is 50*l.*; for which he reads prayers twice a week and preaches on Sundays. The surgeon receives 300*l.* per annum, for his attendance at the prison and the House of Correction. The prisoners are allowed a pound of bread and a pint of gruel daily, for breakfast; and a quart of broth, of beef, with rice, oatmeal, celery, onions, leeks, pepper, and salt; and six ounces of meat, alternately, for dinner. The bedsteads are of plank; the bed a ticking filled with straw; and the covering a blanket and rug. The county allows a peck of coals, per diem, to each prisoner.

KING'S BENCH PRISON. The office of marshal of this prison was formerly hereditary in a private family, by grant from the crown; but in the 27th Geo. II. it was suggested as improper for a private family to hold such an office; and that it would be the means of more effectually preventing extortion and impositions on the prisoners, if the appointment were vested in the crown, subject to removal for neglect of duty, non-residence, or improper conduct. A bill therefore passed to enable his Majesty to purchase the future appointment of the office of marshal of the King's Bench prison, and 10,500*l.* was voted for that purpose. By this act the king appoints the officer to hold his office *quamdiu se bene gesserit*. Constant residence seems required, either within the walls or the rules.

The marshal is to keep the prison in repair, and pay his servants out of the fees and emoluments. The power of continuance and removal is vested in the chief justice, and the other three judges of the court of King's Bench.

By the act 32 George II. the courts were required to meet, and to settle a table of fees, &c. to be taken of all prisoners for debt, and the prisoners were protected by that act from the imposition and extortion of gaolers. The court of King's Bench settled a table of fees, to be taken of all prisoners for debt, &c.; and by the said act they are directed to send, at certain times in the year, to see that this table of fees, as well as a list of all bequests, are hung up in some conspicuous part of the prison, and that the said act is in every other respect complied with; and that eight days public notice should be given of this visitation. Any violation of the clauses in this act subjects gaolers and servants to a penalty of 50*l.* The limits and boundaries, or as they are commonly called, "Rules" of the prison, are very extensive, forming a circle of nearly three miles round the walls of the prison. The purchase of these rules, is said to be seven guineas

guineas for the first hundred pounds every prisoner is charged with, and five pounds for every hundred afterwards; and such security is given to the marshal as he approves of; but all taverns, ale-houses, and places of public amusement, are excluded.

Day rules are allowed, to the number of three days in every term, unless the prisoner can shew good cause to the court why a greater number of days should be granted him. Those in the rules who have given to the marshal two sufficient securities, pay for the first day-rule 4*s.* 2*d.* and 3*s.* 10*d.* for every other day. The expence attending an application for a greater number is about a guinea and a half. Those who are within the walls, and are too poor to purchase the rules, and unable, from the general desertion of their friends, to find security, cannot obtain this indulgence of the day rules without paying a judge's tipstaff 10*s.* 6*d.* to attend him, and a further sum of 16*s.* 8*d.* to induce the tipstaff to become security to the marshal in case of an escape. As the tipstuffs give to the marshal security to the amount of 500*l.* only, those who are charged with demands or debts for more than that sum can have no indulgence of this kind.

The prison is situated at the top of Blackman-street, in the borough of Southwark. The entrance to it from St. George's Fields, is by a handsome court yard, where there are three good houses. The largest of them is the proper residence of the marshal; one for the clerk of the papers, with his office on the ground-floor; and the third is generally let to persons of rank and fortune, who are committed by the court for challenges, libels or other misdemeanors. From this court-yard the ascent is by a few stone-steps into a lobby, which has a good room on the right-hand, and over it several good apartments, which, it is said, usually let at five guineas a week; also two rooms, called strong rooms, to secure those who have attempted to escape. These strong rooms are about twelve feet by eight: one of them has a flagged floor, and is occasionally used as a coal-hole; the other has a boarded floor. No fire-place in either; no casements, or shutters, to keep out the weather.

From the lobby is a descent by a few stone-steps, into a small square yard, where there is a pair of great gates and a small door, with a lodge for the turnkeys, and a room over it, generally let at one guinea a week. On the right hand of this gate, on entering the inner part of the prison, there is a brick building, called the "State House," containing eight large handsome rooms, let at two and sixpence each per week to those who have interest to procure one. Opposite

to the state house is the tap-room, where from twelve to twenty-four butts of beer are drawn weekly. In this tap-room is a bar; and on one side is a very neat small parlour, belonging to the person who keeps the tap. On the other is a room on a larger scale, called the wine-room, where prisoners and their friends occasionally resort. The residence of the prisoners is in a large brick building, about one hundred and twenty yards long, with a wing at each end, and a neat uniform chapel in the centre. There is a space of ground in front of the building of about forty yards, including a parade of about three yards, paved with broad flag-stones. In the space between the building and the wall are three pumps, well supplied with spring and river water; also another pump, at the side of the further wing, with a spring of very fine water. Part of the ground next the wall is appropriated for playing at rackets and fives; and there are also, in different parts, devices and contrivances for other amusements.

The building is divided into sixteen staircases, with stone-steps and iron-railings. The whole number of rooms, including the eight state rooms, is two hundred and twenty-four; the size of them in general, is fifteen to sixteen feet by twelve or thirteen feet: some few are on a little larger scale. In each room is a strong iron range, and on each side a recess, either for a bed or a cupboard. All the rooms that were destroyed by the fire, some years ago, are now arched with brick, to prevent in future any fire from extending beyond a single room. In the passage from the entrance to the back of the building is a coffee-house,* where there was formerly an ordinary every day, at two shillings per head, with a pint of porter included. The marshal, is said to receive an annual rent of 105*l.* from the person who keeps it.

Beyond the coffee-room is a bakehouse, which pays also a rent of thirty-six guineas per annum. And on the opposite side of the way is the public kitchen, where the prisoners may have their meat roasted and boiled gratis, before one o'clock. After that time the cook charges twopence or threepence for each joint, according to its size. Between the coffee-house and the public kitchen, there are generally two or three butcher's stalls, a green market, and persons selling fish: and in the further wing is a large tap-room, called the *Brace*, from its having once been kept by two brothers, whose

* Here a prisoner may be accommodated with a bed by the night or week (as he can agree) till he gets chumage, or a room.

name was *Partridge*. Over this tap-room is another room of the same size, occupied by a prisoner, where the newspapers may be read, and tea, coffee, &c. may be had; but the man having been detected in selling spirituous liquors, the marshal turned him out, and gave the room to another prisoner. The lower rooms on the parade are, many of them, converted into chandler's-shops, kept by prisoners.

The management and government of this prison are in the hands of a marshal, who has under him a deputy marshal, a clerk of the papers, several clerks, three turnkeys, and their assistants. As the marshal, deputy marshal, and clerk of the papers, can seldom come into the prison, every complaint must be made by letter, or by a personal application at the office of the clerk of the papers. If it relates to any quarrel or disturbance, it is generally settled in a summary way. The marshal is a magistrate, and also armed with a rule of court, authorizing him to commit any person to the new gaol, for riotous or disorderly conduct; one month for the first offence, and three months for a second. But the prisoner may appeal either to the court, or to a judge out of term.

No spirituous liquors are allowed to be sold within the prison; and by a rule of court, no women or children ought to stay in the prison after ten o'clock. At half-past nine, therefore, a man goes round with a bell, and at certain places calls out, "Strangers, women, and children, out!" The number of prisoners before the act of Insolvency of 1797 was upward of 600; about 200 of whom were excluded by the limitations of the sum, and time. After the act of 1801, about 150 were left in prison; many of those who had been a great number of years confined were excluded from the benefit on account of the limitation of the sum; and others, who were not within the term specified by the act. Not more than three or four were remanded under the act, for fraud, &c. March 10, 1802, the numbers within the walls were 315, and 57 within the rules: January 13, 1804, within the walls and rules, 520.

When a debtor is first committed to this prison, he is entitled to what is called a *chummage*, as soon as he has paid his fees. This *chummage* is a ticket given him by the clerk of the papers, to go to such a room; and whether it be to a whole room, the half, or third of a room, must entirely depend upon the number of prisoners within the walls. But, as it is more convenient for persons, when they first come to this prison, to hire a bed for a week or two, there are always a great number of distressed persons willing to hire out their beds, on being paid two or three shillings per night.

Others,

Others, who are distressed, let their right to half a room, at five shillings per week, and sleep in the tap-room on the benches, in hammocks or on mattresses. The clerk of the papers has the entire management and disposition of the rooms. He is assisted by the eldest turnkey, who goes round every Monday morning, and receives the weekly rent of one shilling.

The poor side of the prison consists of sixteen rooms, at the back of the building. The number of inhabitants seldom exceeds thirty. They are governed by a set of rules of court, made in 1729, and are entitled to their share of all charities, bequests, gifts, and donations; a list of which ought to be put up in some conspicuous part of the prison. Every person, as soon as he is admitted on this charity, must also take his turn to hold the begging box at the door; which prevents many, who have lived in respectable situations, from applying for relief in this way.

In this prison are confined, not debtors alone, but persons convicted of offences on prosecutions in the court of King's Bench. Its regulations at this day, are upon the most correct principles of justice and humanity. Formerly, there existed within the walls a most corrupt and tyrannical self-constituted court, which exercised a despotic jurisdiction over the persons and property of the prisoners; but on a complaint to the court at Westminster in 1779, this mock tribunal was suppressed, and the pseudo-chief-justice, one Phillips, was removed to the new prison in the Borough.

FLEET PRISON. The Fleet prison situated on the east side of Fleet-market, is a place of confinement of great antiquity, it having been mentioned in the reign of Richard I., which was from 1189 to 1199. The name was then *Prisona de la Fleet*. It is now a prison for debtors, and for persons charged with contempt of the courts of Chancery, Exchequer, and Common Pleas.

In 1728, many abuses practised by the warden were the subject of parliamentary enquiry; and Mr. Oglethorpe, from the committee appointed to enquire into the state of the gaols, made several reports of many grievous abuses practised in the Fleet, Marshalsea, and King's Bench; in consequence of which many useful regulations were enacted.

In the front is a narrow court-yard. At each end of the building is a small projection or wing. There are four floors, called galleries; beside the cellar-floor, called Bartholomew fair. Each gallery consists of a passage in the middle, the whole length of the prison, sixty-six yards; and of rooms on each side of it, about fourteen feet and a half by twelve and a

half, and nine feet and a half high. Each room has a chimney and window, except three called slip rooms, which are without a chimney. The passages are narrow (not seven feet wide) and dark, having only one window at each end.

On the first floor, the hall gallery, to which the ascent is by eight steps, are a tap-room, a room called the cellar-head, another for one of the turnkeys, and nineteen rooms for the prisoners; at the north end of which is the chapel.

The cellar-floor is sixteen steps below the hall-gallery. It consists of the public kitchen, four large beer and wine cellars, sixteen rooms for prisoners, and one for another of the turnkeys.

In the coffee-room gallery (the next above the hall) are the coffee-room, made out of two; the strong-room, for refractory prisoners, and twenty-two more for those of other descriptions.

In the third gallery, above the coffee-room, are twenty-six others, and a room at the north end. Over the chapel is an infirmary.

In the top-gallery are twenty-seven rooms; some of which, being over the chapel, are larger than the rest.

All the rooms already mentioned are for master's-side debtors, at the weekly rent of one shilling and threepence, unfurnished. They fall to the prisoners in succession, (except those called Bartholomew fair, which are in the entire disposal of the warden,) that is, when a room becomes vacant, the first prisoner upon the list of such as have paid their commitment fees succeeds to it. When the prison was built, the warden gave each prisoner his choice of a room, according to his seniority.

If all the rooms are occupied, a new comer, on payment of his commitment fees, is *chummed* (as they term it) on the next room in rotation, beginning at No. 1. in the hall-gallery.

The apartments for common side debtors are only part of the right-wing of the prison. Beside the cellar, (which was intended for the kitchen, but is now occupied with lumber, and shut up,) there are four floors. On each floor is a room near twenty feet square, with a fire-place; and on the sides seven closets, or cabins, to sleep in. Such of the prisoners as swear in court, or before a commissioner, that they are not worth five pounds, and cannot subsist without charity, partake of the casual donations which are sent to the prison and the begging box placed at the grate.

Here

Here is plenty of water, both from the river and pumps; and a spacious yard behind the prison, where the prisoners play at fives, and other games.

MARSHALSEA. Of the court of Marshalsea an account has already been given (Vol. II. p. 450.)

To this prison of the court of the marshalsea, and of the King's Palace-court of Westminster, are brought debtors, sued within twelve miles of the palace, except in the city of London.

The prison is held, under lease, by Mr. Cracklow, a surveyor. One-half of it is already fallen down in ruins; and of the remainder it may be almost said, with our poet, that

“The castle topples o'er the Warder's head.”

The court-yard is spacious, and contains nearly fifty rooms, six of which only are for common-side debtors. There are two or three rooms for women; but as there is only one court-yard, men and women mix together in the day-time. No infirmary. There is a tap in the prison which was let at forty shillings per week. The court is well supplied with water. The prisoners sometimes employ themselves in cutting pegs for the brewers, and are paid two shillings the thousand.

If more debtors are on the common side than six rooms will contain, at three in a room, other rooms are allowed on the master's side. No pirates have been committed to this prison since the year 1789; but several persons have been, and still are, committed in execution, under sentence of courts-martial, to suffer imprisonment for a limited time: they are committed by the Lords of the Admiralty, pursuant to the sentence. Of this description have been found from four to eight within the last seven years. The whole building is in a most ruinous and insecure state; and the habitations of the debtors are wretched in the extreme.

WHITE CHAPEL. This is a prison of the baron court, for the liberties and manors of Stepney and Hackney, and is private property. It consists of four rooms fronting the high road, two on each story, of about fifteen feet by thirteen, and eight feet high. Every debtor who sleeps in any of these rooms, pays to the keeper for the use of a bed, one shilling the first night, and sixpence per night afterwards. The court-yard is forty feet by twenty, in which is the men's day-room, of twelve feet by ten. From the court is an ascent by a wooden stair-case to a gallery; in which are two

M m 2

sleeping

sleeping rooms, and the women's day-room, of equal size with that below. These latter are free wards.

In this prison are confined those whose debts are above two pounds, and not exceeding five pounds; and by the statute 21 Geo. III. the term of imprisonment is fixed for a time, not exceeding one week for every pound of the total debt and costs. The court is held every Thursday; and a regular general court once in six weeks.

SURRY COUNTY GAOL. This noble building does honour to the county of Surry. It is situate in an open and airy part of Horsemonger-lane, in the borough of Southwark. The boundary wall incloses about three acres of ground. The session's-house adjoins it, to which there is a communication from the prison, and a housekeeper appointed to keep it clean, with a salary, and apartments for her use.

The gaol, which is likewise the county Bridewell, was first inhabited the 3d of August, 1798, and has in front the turnkey's lodge; on the ground-floor of which is a day-room; another room with a cold bath; and a third is a wash-house, with an oven, &c. Over these are four rooms, eighteen feet by fifteen, for the turnkeys to sleep in; and at the top of all is a spacious lead-flat, where criminals are executed. After passing through the lodge, an avenue paved with Yorkshire stone, leads on to the keeper's house, which is in the centre of the prison, and from which the several court yards are inspected.

For master's-side debtors there is a court-yard, paved with flag-stones, 75 feet by 30, inclosed by handsome iron-palisades, so that a thorough air is admitted: and arcades, paved in the same manner, 31 feet by 26, under which to walk in wet weather. Close to these is a day-room, 27 feet by 20, with a fire-place; and they have likewise sixteen sleeping rooms, each fourteen feet six inches by nine feet three, with an iron-grated and glazed window.

Common side debtors have also a court-yard with arcades, a day-room, and twelve sleeping-rooms, the same as those on the master's side: but they sleep in hammocks, and find their own bedding.

Women debtors have a court, about twenty feet square; a day-room, eighteen feet square, and four sleeping rooms, of the same size as the men's; to which they also find their own bedding, and pay nothing.

Pumps are fixed in all the courts: Thames water is laid on; and at the top of the four corners of the gaol is a reservoir, each containing about eight hundred gallons of water, supplied

supplied from a well by a forcing pump. There are four spacious airy rooms, each twenty-five feet by sixteen, set apart as infirmaries, fitted up with flock-beds, blankets, pillows, and rugs; and adjoining to them are court-yards, thirty feet square, for convalescents to walk in. Also two rooms for the nurses; another for the surgeon; and a fourth with a warm bath.

The chapel is a very neat building, where prisoners are seated in their different classes; and all are required to attend divine service who receive the county allowance.

The lobbies are well ventilated, six feet three inches wide. Rules and orders excellent. The magistrates visit in rotation, and enter their remarks in a book. The act for preservation of health, and the clauses against spirituous liquors, are conspicuously hung up. The whole prison is remarkably clean.

Another matter connected with the police of the metropolis is the mode of preventing the extent of conflagration; and in the same view may be considered the various establishments for supply of water, both for extinguishing fire, and for domestic supply.

BUILDING ACT. From the time of the great fire which made such dreadful ravages in London in 1666, the attention of the legislature was directed to the establishment of such regulations in the erection of dwelling-houses and other buildings, as might prevent the recurrence of so dreadful a calamity. An act for this purpose was passed in the 19th Charles II.; and subsequent statutes were enacted under succeeding monarchs, until their general regulations, with such additions as experience suggested, were comprised in one of the 14th Geo. III. c. 78. This act divides buildings into seven distinct classes or rates, and directs that to each building shall be appropriated party-walls, of proper thickness; and that the timbers shall be so placed as to prevent the extent of conflagration. The provisions are exceedingly judicious, but too minute and technical to be copied or abridged in this work; the act ought, however, to be attentively considered by all inhabitants of the metropolis, as it contains many regulations of great importance to their convenience and well being, and extends to many other objects besides fire.

ENGINES. Of the offices already established for the indemnity of those who suffer by fire, some account has been given in this volume, p. 371. By the spirited emulation of the persons directing these undertakings, a nightly patrol is provided, which goes through the streets of the metropolis during the night; and on the appearance of fire, immediate

alarm is given at some of the stations, where engines are placed at the expence of the insurance offices to pour water where necessary. Besides the aid thus afforded, the statute last referred to, makes it incumbent on churchwardens to provide one or more engines in every parish, to be in readiness on the shortest notice, to extinguish fires; and also ladders to favour escapes; and, that every facility might be afforded with regard to water, it is also incumbent on the churchwardens to fix stop-blocks and fire-plugs at convenient distances, upon all the main pipes within the parish; and to place a mark in the street where they are to be found, and to have an instrument or key ready to open such fire-plugs, so that the water may be accessible on the shortest possible notice. That every thing also may be done to insure dispatch, the person bringing the first parish engine to any fire is entitled to thirty shillings, the second to twenty shillings, and the third to ten shillings, paid by the parish, excepting in cases where chimnies are on fire; and then the expence ultimately falls upon the person inhabiting the house or place where it originated. This excellent statute, also obliges all beaules and constables, on the breaking out of any fire, to repair immediately to the spot, with their long staves, and to protect the sufferers from the depredation of thieves, and to assist in removing effects, and in extinguishing the flames; and in recent times the exertions of the peace officers have been materially aided by the volunteers, and sometimes by the regular military.

WATER. The regular and copious supply of water to the metropolis is one of the most excellent effects of modern jurisprudence, and the spirit of commercial enterprize. This great improvement in the convenience, and invaluable addition to the health and security of the metropolis, first became an object of legislative attention in 1605; when, the suburbs of London daily increasing, and consequently the danger of fire and scarcity of water, notwithstanding the many springs brought in leaden pipes into the city, as well as the many wells with pumps almost every where dug within the city and suburbs, an act of parliament was obtained 3 James I. c. 18., for bringing a fresh stream of running water to the north parts of London from the springs of Chadwell and Amwell, &c. in the county of Hertford; giving power to the lord mayor and corporation of London, to lay out such convenient ground for making the trench for the said new river; not to exceed ten feet in breadth, leaving the inheritance in the owners thereof, who were to allow a free passage through their grounds to and from the new

cut at all times, with carts, horses, &c. for making and repairing the same; for which satisfaction was to be made to the owners of the lands, and of the mills standing on the streams from which water should be taken, to be valued by commissioners, as therein directed. The lord mayor, &c. were to make and keep up convenient bridges over the new cut, at fit places, for the use of the king's subjects, as well as the proprietors of the lands on each side. In the year following another act of parliament (4 James I. c. 12.) passed; purporting, 'that since passing the former act, upon
' view of the grounds through which the waters were to pass,
' by men of skill, it was thought more convenient, and less
' damage to the ground, that the water should be conveyed
' through a trunk or vault of brick or stone inclosed, and in
' some places, where need was, raised by arches, than in an
' open trench or sewer.' Power therefore was vested in the lord mayor of London, &c. for that effect. But this expensive proposal, and also another act of parliament (7 James I. c. 9.) granting to the king's newly erected divinity college at Chelsea, power to bring water in pipes from the river Lea, for supplying London therewith for their benefit, came to nothing.

LONDON BRIDGE WATER WORKS. Before the legislature had made any provision for supplying the metropolis with water, private projectors had made some, though not considerable progress, in the work. The heads of the great monasteries in and near London had formed establishments for conveying water by pipes to their own convents and their immediate vicinity; but a more extensive and useful speculation was that of the works on London Bridge, formed by Peter Morice, or Corbis, a Dutchman, in 1582. This work, afterward improved by British engineers, and particularly by Mr. Serocold and Mr. Hadley, was at first made to force the water no higher than Gracechurch-street. Morice obtained from the city a lease for five hundred years, at the yearly rent of ten shillings, for the use of the Thames water, and one arch and a place for fixing his mill upon. The citizens, soon experiencing the benefit of this invention, granted him a like lease two years after for another arch. By these means he grew very wealthy, and the premises continued in his family, under various improvements, until the year 1701; when the property was sold to one Richard Soams, citizen, and goldsmith; the heir of Morice having first, at the purchaser's request, obtained another lease of the fourth arch, for the further improvement of the said works, after selling the whole property thereof for thirty-

six thousand pounds. Mr. Soams, to prevent all disputes with the citizens, then applied to the city for a confirmation of his bargain with Morice, and obtained a fresh lease from them for the term unexpired of Morice's lease, at the yearly rent of twenty shillings, and three hundred pounds fine. Afterward he divided the whole property into three hundred shares, at five hundred pounds each share, and made it a company. The wheels placed under the arches, are moved by the common stream of the tide-water of the river Thames, and it raises water to the height of one hundred and twenty feet.

NEW RIVER. It was in consequence of the legislative provision, made in the reign of James I. that Sir Hugh Middleton planned and completed the New River, already described at p. 327 of this volume.

HAMPSTEAD WATER COMPANY. In 1630, a project was set on foot for conveying certain springs of water into London and Westminster, from within a mile and a half of Hodsdon, in Hertfordshire, by the undertakers, Sir Edward Stradling, and John Lyde, the projector being one Michael Parker: for defraying the expence whereof, king Charles granted them a special licence to erect and publish a lottery or lotteries; according (says the record) to the course of other lotteries heretofore used or practised. And for the sole privilege of bringing the said waters in aqueducts to London, they were to pay 4000*l.* per annum, into the king's exchequer; and the better to enable them to make the said large annual payment, the king granted them leave to bring their aqueducts through any of his parks, chases, lands, &c. and to dig up the same gratis. Of this project no trace now remains, unless it gave rise to the Hampstead Water Company, who from certain ponds in Hampstead and Highgate, supply water to a portion of the metropolis, and some adjacent parishes.

YORK BUILDINGS WATER WORKS. Soon after the restoration, Sir John Bucknall and others were proprietors of water-works at York buildings, for raising that necessary fluid from the Thames, granted them by patent of Charles II. The water was originally raised by the exertions of horses, and probably in the manner of the chain pump. Each house, thus supplied, paid upon an average 25*s.* per annum. Their edifice was once burnt and rebuilt, and they were incorporated in 1691. The proprietors offered them for sale in 1718, and described themselves as a corporation with the inheritance of their ground, on which their works were situated, that had cisterns and pipes laid to tenants, producing an income of 16,000*l.* per annum. A steam engine was first used

used at York-buildings, for raising water, in April, 1726, which consumed two chaldrons of coals in 24 hours, and raised 50 tons of water per hour. This was afterward given up as too expensive, and the company, after the two rebellions, made an extensive speculation in the purchase of forfeited estates: they still supply water to their immediate neighbourhood.

CHELSEA WATER WORKS. In 1722, the vast increase of buildings in the great western suburbs of London requiring a greater supply of fresh water than the present works could furnish, an act of parliament, of the eighth year of Geo. I. for better supplying the city and liberties of Westminster, and parts adjacent, with water, authorized the Chelsea water company, newly erected, to dig basons, reservoirs, &c. for bringing water from the river Thames, to a place near Chelsea, and to convey the same (by an ingenious engine,) to another reservoir in Hyde-park, whence it is conveyed in pipes to several streets and houses; and the crown was empowered to incorporate the undertakers. A canal was then dug from the Thames, near Ranelagh, to Pimlico, where there is a steam engine for the purpose of raising the water into pipes, which convey it in various directions to the village of Chelsea, to Westminster, and various parts of the west end of the town. The proprietors of the works have an office in Abingdon-street, Westminster, where all business relating to the rent of the water is transacted. In a calculation of the quantity of water supplied daily by the waterworks in the neighbourhood of London, anno 1767; those at Chelsea, are said to yield 1740 tons.

OTHER COMPANIES. Beside these, there are two other companies, which have recently commenced the distribution of water; the *East London Water Works*, established by statutes of the 47th and 48th years of Geo. III. and by the latter act empowered to purchase the *Shadwell* and *West-Ham Water Works*; and the *West Middlesex Company*, established also about the same period.

PLACES OF AMUSEMENT. The places of public entertainment in a large and wealthy metropolis, are of considerable importance to the commonwealth, as they not only shew to the world at large, the degree in which the nation is refined or depraved, but as they are objects of great interest to government, which is bound to watch over them with care, and to impose such restraints as may prevent them from becoming public nuisances, and yet not to deprive the people of their reasonable and necessary recreations. Of those most patronized

tronized in and about London it is intended to subjoin some account.

THE THEATRES. So natural to the human mind is the desire to commemorate the acts of illustrious men, and even of divinities by mimic representation, that almost every country, in its struggles to escape from barbarism, formed some scheme of theatrical representation, in which heroic and comic actions were exhibited separately or blended together. In England some species of dramatic performances appear to have been a part of the popular delights from a very early period; some were religious, some moral, some satirical, and some extremely coarse and rustic; until, at length a peculiar and national style was formed, not fettered by the rules of the ancient or foreign drama; nor equal to it in dignity, but far surpassing whatever has been produced by any other nation in discrimination and variety of character, and in irresistible appeals to all the passions and feelings of man. In its zenith, the true, native drama of England was unrivalled in these properties; an excess of refinement in more recent times has deprived it of some of its highest qualities; but still, whatever may have been sacrificed to a regularity of little value, the modern productions of English dramatists, may vie with those of any other country, and challenge a comparison in point of sense, sentiment, wit, and variety.

It is not intended to enter into a progressive history of the stage; but the restraints which the legislature has wisely imposed on its licentiousness, and the facts connected with them are of sufficient interest to demand attention, and are derived from Mr. Coxe's *Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole*. It is needless, the author observes, to discuss the question concerning the necessity of fixing some bounds to the licentiousness of the stage. The necessity must be allowed, except by those who think it fitting to subject to public mockery, law, government, and religion; and to expose magistrates, judges, and kings, to the personalities of satire, buffoonery, and low mimicry. In all well regulated governments, the fact has been universally admitted, and wherever it has not been adopted, the most fatal consequences have followed.

Even the freest democracy which perhaps ever existed, that of Athens, after having experienced the effects of unrestrained licentiousness in their theatrical performances, found it necessary to remedy the evil, and to limit the stage within the boundaries of common decency and justice.

It appears from the history of the English stage, that no period ever existed when it was not subject to superintendence;

dence; when players were not licensed, and when plays were not reviewed and amended, allowed, or rejected. Before the reign of Henry VIII. the power of superintending the king's hunting parties, the direction of the comedians, musicians, and other royal servants, appointed either for use or recreation, was exclusively vested in the Lord Chamberlain.

Under him, and subject to his controul, was an inferior officer, who exerted himself on particular occasions for the purpose of regulating pageants, public festivals, and masquerades. This man was called by the fanciful names of the *Abbot of Misrule*, or *Lord of Pastimes*. But in the reign of Henry VIII. this temporary office was rendered regular and permanent by letters patent, and called the office of *Master of the Revels*.

Under Elizabeth, some wise regulations, with the advice of Walsingham, and co-operation of Burleigh, were made for allowing the use, but correcting the abuse of the stage; particularly, when the Earl of Leicester obtained the first general licence for his theatrical servants to act stage-plays in any part of England, a proviso was added in the patent, enjoining that *all comedies, tragedies, interludes and stage-plays, should be examined and allowed by the master of the Revels*. Thus that authority, which was before confined to the pastimes of the court, was now extended to the theatrical exhibitions of the whole kingdom.

During her reign also, the privy council exercised an authority, legislative and executive, over the dramatic world. They opened and shut playhouses; gave and recalled licences; appointed the proper seasons when plays ought to be presented or withheld; and regulated the conduct of the lord mayor of London, and the vice-chancellors of Oxford and Cambridge, with regard to plays and players. The privy council gave Tilney, the master of the revels in 1589, two coadjutors, a statesman, and a divine, to assist him in reforming comedies and tragedies.

These prudent regulations, and the wisdom with which they were exercised, were attended with the most beneficial effects. The master of the revels, by regulating the stage, and restraining the number of theatres, gave greater respectability to the profession of a player; and the genius of the drama expanded and soared to a greater height, although its limits were contracted and its flight circumscribed.

Had not these wise regulations taken place, Shakespeare might have confined to burlesque farces, and low buffoonery,
those

those vast powers of invention and description which his own language can alone adequately delineate.

“ The poet’s eye, in a fine frenzy rolling,
Glances from heav’n to earth, from earth to heav’n,
And as imagination bodies forth
The forms of things unknown, the poet’s pen
Turns them to shape, and gives to airy nothing
A local habitation and a name.”

By the wise and temperate use which the master of the revels made of his power, his weight and influence increased, and he gradually appropriated to himself the greater part of that authority, which had belonged to the lord chamberlain. During the latter part of the reign of James I. and Charles I. it was held by Sir Henry Herbert, nearly allied to the earl of Pembroke, lord chamberlain, under whose prudent management the reputation and consequence of the office increased, and produced the most salutary effects, until his functions were wholly suspended by the troubles and confusion of the civil wars, and the fanaticism of the republicans.

On the restoration of Charles II. the master of the revels endeavoured to re-assume his former authority, but met with insuperable opposition from the proprietors and managers of the king’s and duke’s companies, one of whom had obtained a fresh licence to act plays, the other a renewal of a former grant. In vain the master of the revels applied to the courts of justice for redress; in vain he appealed to the sovereign, or to the lord chamberlain; he was neither supported by the one, or countenanced by the other; his authority, though not overthrown, was considerably shaken, and his regulations were combated and despised.

During this suspension of his power, the particular differences, pretensions, or complaints, were generally settled by the personal interference of the king and duke, or referred to the decision of the lord chamberlain. In consequence of this relaxation of authority, and the libertine character of the court, the theatre was disgraced by the grossest ribaldry and obscenity, and the best authors vied who should produce the most licentious comedies. Ladies could not venture to attend a new play without masks, then daily worn, and admitted into the pit, the side-boxes, and the gallery.

On the death of Sir Henry Herbert, the mastership of the revels was conferred on Charles Killebrew, manager of the king’s company. The union of these two functions increased the

the evil, and the smallest check was not imposed on the glaring immorality of the stage.

At the revolution, the power of the lord chamberlain was revived without restriction. He opened and shut play-houses, imprisoned and licensed players, corrected and rejected plays. Under him the master of the revels seems to have recovered some part of his former power, and to have had his share in the revolutions of the theatre. He revised and sanctioned plays, and his aid greatly contributed to the celebrated conquest which Jeremy Collier, by the publication of his short view of the stage, obtained over the immorality of the drama. In this publication, the most profane and obscene passages in several modern plays, which had been written by Dryden, Vanbrugh, Wycherley, Congreve, and the most admired dramatic authors, were detected and exposed. The truth of his observations, which all the wit and talents of the authors who were deservedly chastised could not controvert, produced a surprising effect; a general outcry was raised against the licentiousness of the stage, and king William sent the following order to the play-houses: "His majesty being informed, that notwithstanding an order made in June 1697, by the earl of Sunderland, then lord chamberlain of the king's household, to prevent the profaneness and immorality of the stage, several plays have lately been acted, containing several expressions contrary to religion and good manners: And whereas the master of the revels hath represented, that, in contempt of the said order, the actors did neglect to leave out such profane and indecent expressions, as he had thought proper to be omitted: therefore, it is his majesty's pleasure, that they shall not hereafter presume to act any thing in any play, contrary to religion and good manners, as they shall answer at their utmost peril." At the same time, the master of the revels was commanded not to license any plays containing irreligious or immoral expressions, and to give notice to the lord chamberlain, or in his absence to the vice-chamberlain, if the players presumed to act any thing which he had struck out.

But this reformation did not continue long in its full force. As soon as the first awe and panic of the actors had subsided, the stage nearly relapsed into its former immorality, all attempts to reform it became the object of theatrical wit, and were ridiculed in plays, prologues and epilogues. Although the new plays were usually more decent and moral, yet the old plays were frequently acted, without being freed from their exceptionable passages.

Either in consequence of these proceedings, or of some disputes,

putes which arose between the actors of the royal theatres, and produced the desertion of the principal performers from Drury Lane to the Haymarket, the nuisance of play-houses, and the conduct of the performers, became so flagrant, that a bill, in the twelfth year of queen Anne, included players, who acted without a legal settlement in the places where they performed, among vagrants, and subjected them to the same penalties as rogues and vagabonds. But before the beneficial effects of this act could have time to operate, the death of the queen produced a new revolution in the drama.

Soon after the accession of George I. the power of the master of the revels, which had been considerably circumscribed, was almost annihilated; a new patent was injudiciously granted to Sir Richard Steele, Colley Cibber and Booth, for acting plays without subjecting them to the licence or revision of any officer.

In consequence of this grant, the master of the revels was abridged of his power, and defrauded of his dues, and his emoluments were reduced to a small salary from the exchequer, to lodgings in Somerset-House, and to occasional fees.

At the death of Charles Killigrew, the office, thus mutilated, was conferred on Charles Henry Lee, and the decline of his power was sufficiently shewn by the growing licentiousness of the stage, and the numerous pieces which offended equally against religion, decency and common sense.

Although, in all the letters patent for acting plays since the time of Charles I. no mention was made of the lord chamberlain, yet he was still considered as possessing an absolute, though an undefinable authority over the stage, which he had occasionally exercised. The performance of several theatrical pieces had been prevented, particularly *Lucius Junius Brutus*, a prologue of Dryden to the *Prophetess*, *Mary queen of Scotland*, and recently *Polly*, the sequel to the *Beggar's Opera*.

But as this exercise of his power had been always attended with much unpopularity, it was seldom exerted. Numerous theatres were erected in various parts of the metropolis, in which the actors performed without licence or authority. To prevent this, several attempts were made to enforce the laws then existing. An actor, who performed on the theatre of the Haymarket without licence, was taken from the stage, by the warrant of a justice of peace, and committed to Bridewell, as coming under the penalty of the vagrant act. The legality of the commitment was disputed; a trial ensued; it was decided, that the comedian being a housekeeper, and
having

having a vote for electing members of parliament; did not come within the description of the said act; and he was discharged amidst the loud acclamations of the populace. The issue of this trial gave full scope to the licentiousness of the stage, and took away all hopes of restraining the number of play-houses.

From this representation of the state of the drama, it is evident that some reformation was indispensable. The minister himself had long seen that necessity. The obloquy which pursued him was not confined to the press; the stage was made the vehicle of the most malignant sarcasms, not expressed in the elevated tone of tragedy, or couched in sentiments and language perceptible only to men of refined understandings; but his person was brought on the stage, his actions maligned, his measures misrepresented and arraigned, and his conduct made the sport of the populace, in all the petulance of vulgar farce. He was unwilling, however, to make this a personal consideration, but rather a public and national question, in which the good of the law, constitution, religion, and morality, was intimately involved; and such an opportunity seemed to present itself, when Sir John Barnard brought in a bill "to restrain the number of houses for playing of interludes, and for the better regulating of common players of interludes."

On his representing the mischiefs which theatres had done to the city of London, by corrupting youth, encouraging vice and debauchery, and greatly prejudicing trade, the proposal was at first received with contempt and ridicule, until it was seconded by Sandys, Pulteney, and warmly supported by the minister himself. It was observed by a member, in the course of the debate, that there were at that time not less than six theatres in London. The house being fully convinced of the necessity of the bill, leave was given to bring it in without a single dissenting voice. It was accordingly on the 3d of April presented, read the first time, and ordered to be printed, notwithstanding petitions against it from the proprietor of the theatre in Goodman's-fields, and from the master and controller of the revels. It was read a second time on the 14th of April.

The minister conceived this to be a favourable opportunity of checking the daring abuse of theatrical representation, which had arrived to a most extravagant height. It was proposed to insert a clause, to ratify and confirm, if not enlarge the power of the lord chamberlain, in licensing plays, and at the same time insinuating to the house, that unless this addition was made, the king would not pass it. But Sir John Barnard

Barnard strongly objected to this clause. He declared that the power of the lord chamberlain was already too great, and had been often wantonly exercised, particularly in the prohibition of Polly. He should therefore withdraw this bill, and wait for another opportunity of introducing it, rather than establish by law a power in a single officer, so much under the direction of the crown, a power which might be exercised in an arbitrary manner, and consequently attended with mischievous effects.

The attempt of Sir John Barnard having thus failed, the immorality of the drama increased, and the most indecent, seditious, and blasphemous pieces were performed, and resorted to with incredible eagerness. Among those who principally supported this low ribaldry, was the celebrated Henry Fielding, who, though he never shone in the higher line of perfect comedy, wrote in these dramatic satires in a style agreeable to the populace. One of his pieces, called *Pasquin*, which was acted in the theatre at the Haymarket, ridiculed in the grossest terms, the three professions of divinity, law and physic, and gave general offence to persons of morality. "Religion, laws, government, priests, judges and ministers," observes Colley Cibber, "were laid flat at the feet of the herculean satirist, this drawcanfir in wit, who spared neither friend nor foe, who to make his poetical fame immortal, like another Erostrates, set fire to his stage, by writing up to an act of parliament to demolish it."

This piece was peculiarly offensive to the minister, because it contained many personal allusions and invectives. But as he was not willing to employ the power of government in a mere temporary prohibition of this and other performances, which would have been extremely unpopular, and not attended with permanent effects, he wished to avail himself of the present flagrant abuse, to prevent future representations so disgraceful and indecorous.

In the course of the session, an opportunity offered, which he did not omit to seize. Giffard, the manager of Goodman's fields theatre, brought to him a farce, called the *Golden Rump*, which had been proposed for exhibition; but it is uncertain whether the intentions of the manager were to request his advice on this occasion, or to extort a sum of money to prevent its representation.

The minister, however, paid the profits which might have accrued from the performance, and detained the copy. He then made extracts of the most exceptionable passages, abounding in profaneness, sedition, and blasphemy, and submitted them to several members of both parties, who were shocked at the extreme licentiousness of the piece, and promised their
support

support to remedy the evil. With their advice, concurrence, and promise of co-operation, he read the several extracts to the House, and a general conviction prevailed, of the necessity of putting a check to the representations of such horrid effusions of treason and blasphemy. He acted, however, with his usual prudence on this occasion: he did not bring forward, as is generally supposed, an act for subjecting all plays to the licence of the lord chamberlain, and restraining the number of playhouses, but contrived to introduce it by amending the vagrant act.

The bill was called, "A Bill to explain and amend so much of an act, made in the twelfth year of the reign of Queen Anne, intituled, An act for reducing the laws relating to rogues, vagabonds, sturdy beggars, and vagrants, and sending them whither they ought to be sent, as relates to the common players of interludes." Leave was accordingly given to bring it in, and Pelham, Dodington, Howe, the master of the rolls, the attorney and solicitor-general, were ordered to prepare it. During its rapid progress through the House, certain amendments were made, and two clauses were added. The first, which occasioned so much obloquy, empowered the lord chamberlain to prohibit the representation of any theatrical performances, and compelled all persons to send copies of any new plays, parts added to old plays, prologues and epilogues, fourteen days before they were acted, and not to perform them, under forfeiture of 50*l.*, and of the licence of the house, if any such existed, in which the play was acted. The second, which is said to have been added at the instigation of Sir John Barnard, operated in restraining the number of playhouses, by enjoining, that no person should be authorised to act, except within the liberties of the city of Westminster, and where the king should reside.

The principal enactments are as follow: 1. Every person who shall for hire, gain, or reward, act, represent, or perform, or cause to be acted, represented, or performed, any interlude, tragedy, comedy, opera, play, farce, or other entertainment of the stage, or any part or parts therein, in case such person shall not have any legal settlement in the place where the same shall be acted, represented, or performed, without authority, by virtue of letters patent from his majesty, his heirs, successors, or predecessors, or without licence from the lord chamberlain of his majesty's household for the time being, shall be deemed a rogue and a vagabond, within the intent and meaning of the said recited act, and shall be liable and subject to all such penalties and

punishments, and by such methods of conviction, as are inflicted on, or appointed by the said act for the punishment of rogues and vagabonds who shall be found wandering, &c.

2. Any person having or not having any legal settlement, who shall without such authority or licence, act, &c. for hire, &c. any interlude, &c. every such person shall, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of fifty pounds, &c.

3. No person shall for hire, &c. act, &c. &c. any new interlude, &c. or any part or parts therein, or any new act, scene, or other part added to any old interlude, &c. or any new prologue or epilogue, unless a true copy thereof be sent to the lord chamberlain of the king's household, &c. fourteen days at least before the acting, &c. together with an account of the playhouse or other place where the same shall be, &c. the time wherein the same shall be first acted, &c. signed by the master or manager, or one, &c. of such playhouse, &c.

It shall be lawful for the said lord chamberlain, as often as he shall think fit, to prohibit the acting, &c. any interlude, &c. or any act, &c. &c. thereof, or any prologue or epilogue; and in case any such persons shall for hire, &c. act any, &c. &c. before a copy shall be sent as aforesaid, or shall for hire, &c. &c. contrary to such prohibition, every person so offending shall, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of fifty pounds; and every grant, &c. (in case there be any such) under which the said master, &c. set up or continued such playhouse, &c. shall cease.

4. That no person or persons shall be authorised by virtue of, &c. from his majesty, &c. or the lord chamberlain, to act, &c. any interlude, &c. in any part of Great Britain, except in the city of Westminster, and within the liberties thereof, and in such places where his majesty, &c. shall reside, and during such residence only.

5. If any interlude, &c. shall be acted, &c. in any house or place, where wine or other liquors shall be sold, the same shall be deemed to be acted, &c. for gain, &c.

DRURY-LANE. This theatre originated on the Restoration. The king made a grant of a patent for acting in what was then called the *Cock-pit*, and the *Phoenix*. The actors were the king's servants, were on the establishment, and ten of them were called Gentlemen of the Great Chamber, and had ten yards of scarlet cloth allowed them, with a suitable quantity of lace. A new theatre, built on the site of the old one, and on much additional ground, was opened in 1794. Its dimensions were thus described at the time. It contains

contains in the pit 800 persons; whole range of boxes, 1828; two-shilling gallery, 675; one shilling gallery, 308; total 3611; amounting to 826l. 6s. There are eight private boxes on each side of the pit; 29 all round the first tier, and 11 back-front boxes; 29 all round the second tier, of which 11 are six seats deep; 10 on each side the gallery, third tier; boxes in the alcove, 9 each side. Diameter of the pit 55 feet; opening of the curtain 38 feet wide; height of the curtain 38 feet; height of the house from pit floor to the ceiling 56 feet 6 inches. The stage is an hundred and five feet in length, seventy-five feet wide, and forty-five feet between the stage doors. To facilitate the working some scenery, and light machinery, there is a stage about ten feet below the upper one. Under this second stage is a depth of about forty feet, furnished with various mechanical engines, requisite for raising large and splendid scenery. Under the pit is a large range of lofty vaults, and immediately over it a spacious store-room, and one for painting scenery, about seventy feet wide and fifty-three feet long: above the galleries is another painting-room, about seventy-five feet by forty. There are two green-rooms, one for the use of chorus-singers, supernumeraries, and figurants; the other for the principal performers; the latter of these apartments is elegantly fitted up. The interior of this theatre resembles the shape of a horse-shoe, and the spectator is forcibly struck with the grandeur of design, elegant execution, and splendid effect of this superb edifice. The prevailing colours of the boxes are blue and white, relieved with richly fancied embellishments of decorative ornament. The compartments in which the front of each tier is divided, has centrally a highly finished cameo, with exquisitely drawn figures raised in white, the subjects chiefly from Ovid; the stage-boxes project about two feet, and have a rich silver lattice-work, of excellent taste and workmanship. The boxes are supported by cast iron candelabras, fluted and silver lathered, resting on elegantly executed feet. From the top of each pillar a branch projects three feet, from which is suspended a brilliant cut-glass chandelier; a circular mirror of five feet diameter is placed on each side the dress boxes next the stage, that produces a pleasing reflected view of the audience. On the nights when this theatre is honoured with their majesties' presence, the partitions of the stage-box are taken down, and it is brought forward nearly two feet, a canopy is erected, superbly decorated with crimson velvet, richly embroidered with gold, and adjoining them sit the princesses. Their box is usually lined with

light blue sattin, fancifully festooned and elegantly decorated with silver fringe and rich tassels. At the back of the front boxes is a semi-circular saloon, forty-one feet long, containing, at a proper elevation, a handsome statue of Garrick, between the tragic and comic muse. In this place proper persons attend with refreshments. Over this is a smaller one for the same purpose, and above that an immense cistern containing water, which, in case of fire, may be immediately conveyed to any part of the house.

The preceding description had been written before the 24th February 1809. On the night of that day, the inutility of the precautions against conflagration were fatally and rapidly demonstrated. A fire was discovered to have broken out a little before midnight, and in a very short time this splendid and elegant edifice was reduced to a heap of ruins. Until a new erection shall diminish the regret justly felt for the loss of the old, the above memorial of what it was will retain some interest with the reader.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE. This theatre was burnt down on the night of the 20th of September 1808. The company removed their performances for a time to the Opera House, and subsequently to the Little Theatre in the Hay Market; but such were the spirit and vigour displayed in projecting and devising means for the re-establishment of the play-house in its old situation, and such the promptitude and liberality with which the public came forward at the call of the proprietors, that the town saw with astonishment at the close of only eleven months from the fire, and in less than nine months from the laying the foundation stone, a new theatre opened on the 18th of September 1809, more spacious, substantial, and elegant than any structure of the kind ever seen in England.

In this consummate effort of architecture, Mr. Robert Smirke, to whom the preparation and conducting of the building were confided, studied no less to produce a structure which should form a classical ornament to the metropolis, and do honour to the age, than to afford to the audience the means of the highest gratifications which an ample, beautiful, and well-contrived theatre can supply.

The edifice itself is a correct model of Grecian architecture, adapted to the dramatic improvements and purposes of the present time. The order is Dorick, taken from that of the Temple of Minerva, at Athens; and there are basso-relievos explaining the purposes of the building, the illustrious fathers of dramatic poetry, both Grecian and English, being represented with attributes characteristic of the state
and

and intention of the ancient and modern dramas. The design of these basso-relievos was made by Mr. Flaxman, and they were executed by Mr. Rossi.

Statues representing tragedy and comedy are placed in niches at each end of the front. Tragedy, which occupies the niche in the southern extremity of the building, or that nearest to Ruffel-street, is a fine figure, holding the tragic mask and dagger. The sculptor is Mr. Rossi. Comedy holds the shepherd's crook or *pedum*, on her right shoulder, and the comic mask in her left hand. This statue, which is the workmanship of Mr. Flaxman, is placed in the niche at the northern extremity of the building next to Long Acre. The figure of Comedy is founded upon the severe taste of antiquity; and, as its object is, to correct as well as to please, it is marked by dignified tranquillity, more than by the laughing graces which might be supposed to characterize farce, rather than legitimate comedy. Tragedy is in a solemn grave attitude, and "looks commercing with the skies," give an impressive majesty to her appearance.

Entrances to the Theatre. The principal entrance to the boxes is at the portico in Bow-street. The hall is forty feet square and built of stone. It communicates with a flight of stone stairs seventeen feet wide, having a gallery separated on each side by a range of Ionick columns of porphyry. The walls are in imitation of light veined marble.

The approach to the corridors from this staircase is through an anti-room, in the centre of which stands a large statue of Shakspeare. The walls of this room are decorated with pilasters of porphyry corresponding with the columns on the staircase.

Another entrance to the boxes is in Prince's Place, from the piazza in Covent Garden; a double flight of stone stairs leads from it to the corridors on the west side of the house.

The principal entrance to the annual boxes is from Prince's Place. The hall is of stone, and the ascent to the boxes is by a great semi-circular staircase of stone. There is another entrance on the east side of the house, in the arcade north of the great portico.

The entrances to the pit are from the piazza in Covent Garden and Bow-street into the Bedford avenue, from which five doors open into the vestibule. There is also an entrance to the pit in the arcade, south of the great portico, and leading to the said vestibule.

The entrances to the lower gallery are at the eastern and western extremity of the Bedford avenue. The en-

trance to the upper gallery is at the eastern extremity of the same.

Interior of the Theatre. The pit is very spacious, and the benches are raised gradually, to a convenient elevation for view of the stage; they are covered with light blue cloth bordered with red. There are three tier of boxes, each forming a semicircle, fifty feet in diameter; having the sides prolonged nearly in a parallel direction towards the stage. The fronts of the boxes are white, with a Greek ornament, continuous through their whole length, in gold upon a light pink ground, and enriched with relieved gold stars, and mouldings; they are supported by slender fluted and gilt columns.

A range of arches supports the ceiling, which is formed into a circle, and painted in concentrick compartments.

The first and second tier of boxes are appropriated to the public, and have three seats in each, covered with light blue cloth.

The upper tier consists of annual boxes, twenty-six in number, with a small separate anti-room to each. The access to these boxes is already described, and they are not connected with any other part of the house. A spacious saloon is also attached to them; it is fitted up with sofas extending on each side, between pedestals, upon which statues are placed. The walls are of cream colour with gold. The busts of the three great poets, Homer, Virgil, and Milton are placed in niches, with paintings in basso relievo from their works. There are columns and pilasters of green Syrian marble at each end of the room*.

There is also a saloon, or coffee-room, at the back of the lower tier of boxes. It is sixty feet long and twenty feet wide, furnished with sofas in recesses on each side; on the walls are paintings in basso relievo from the plays of Shakspeare. The prevailing colours of this room, and the corridors, are green and white.

The upper-gallery is divided into five compartments, and may be thus considered a tier of five boxes, with a communicating lobby at the back of them. One side of this lobby is the exterior wall of the theatre, with the windows into the street. The lobby to the gallery beneath is simi-

* This arrangement for the accommodation of the higher class of society, to the exclusion of the other portion of the audience, was, in part, the occasion of a contest of unexampled warmth and duration, to terminate which, the managers were forced to throw open to the town all the boxes which they had thus intended to reserve, except six.

larly situated. One great advantage attends this construction : in summer the doors of the galleries and the windows of the lobbies being left open, the audience in those parts cannot be oppressed by heat, as in the former theatre.

The proscenium of the stage is a large arch, enriched with pannels and gilt ornaments, and supported by pilasters in imitation of Sienna marble ; it is surmounted with the royal arms. A scarlet curtain is suspended from the arch, ornamented with a black and gold Grecian border. In the centre of a gold wreath is inscribed the motto of the stage, "Veluti in speculum."

The house is lighted by elegant glass chandeliers on a peculiar construction. They are forty in number ; of which four are suspended over the stage, composed of the most brilliant cut-drops, in *or molu* mountings, each holding nine candles. The other thirty-six lustres, of similar construction and materials, holding each from five to seven candles, are distributed equally between the three tiers of boxes ; two hundred and seventy wax candles are consumed in them every night ; two hundred and fifty patent lamps are fixed in the corridors and staircases, and nearly as many more are employed each night to light the stage and scenery.

The artist has been also attentive to the comfort and accommodation of the performers. The gentlemen's dressing rooms are on one side, and those of the ladies on the other. There are three green rooms. The wardrobes are spacious, and rooms are attached to them for the various artisans employed in the business of the theatre.

The stage is well adapted for the display of scenery, and its convenient distribution, having a depth in the rear greatly exceeding that of the late theatre, and is provided with arched recesses on each side in which the scenes are deposited. The scenes are twenty-two feet high, and space is provided to enable these to descend at once under the stage, or to be raised above it.

In the construction of this splendid edifice, the calamitous fate of the late two great winter theatres has not been forgotten. Every means of safety against fire, or other accident, that ingenuity could devise, has been adopted. The corridors are all paved with stone, laid upon brick arches, and the stair cases are of stone. At convenient intervals are strong party walls, with iron doors, by which, if a fire were to break out, it would be confined within that particular compartment, and be prevented from spreading through the house. The fire places are also made with the grates turned upon a pivot, by which means the front can

be turned round to the back; and the fire is thus extinguished without the possibility of accident. Fire pipes filled with water from four reservoirs, upon the top of the building, are also introduced into every part of the house, through which they are spread like veins through the human body.

From a thousand to fifteen hundred workmen were daily employed upon the construction of this building. The excavation for the foundations was begun at the latter end of November 1808, and the foundation stone was laid by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, on the 31st of December. The building was completed on the 18th of September 1809.

HAY MARKET THEATRE. This house was erected in 1720, by a private projector, to be let out occasionally for profit to performers of various descriptions. After the passing of the act for licensing theatrical performances, it was licensed for the exhibition of regular dramas from the 14th of May till the 14th of September in every year. The profits of this short season have, however, of late years been much curtailed by the practice the winter managers have adopted, of keeping open their houses till the middle or nearly the end of July. The house is neatly fitted up, and supposed, when full, to contain a sufficient audience to pay into the treasury nearly 400*l*.

THE OPERA HOUSE. In addition to those theatres where regular English dramas are exhibited, the progress of refined taste, and the increasing passion of the public for exquisite music and elegant dancing, recommended the building of a house for the performance of operas in the Italian language, with dances. The requisite funds for carrying it on were supplied by an ample subscription of persons of quality and fashion, who also formed committees for managing the concern. It was never prosperous; fresh subscriptions were repeatedly made and exhausted, and, at length, the property has fallen into the hands of private undertakers, who conduct it with no better success than their dignified predecessors. The old building is generally said to have been constructed by Sir John Vanburgh, though Mr. Pennant attributes it to Sir Christopher Wren; it was much altered by Mr. Adam, and destroyed by fire in 1790. It was speedily rebuilt on an improved plan, and is now, for its purpose, a most grand and beautiful theatre. The fronts of the boxes are painted in compartments, a blue ground with broad gold frames. The several tiers are distinguished from each other by a difference in the ornaments

in the centre of the compartments. In the second tier these ornaments consist of Neptunes, nereids, tritons, mermaids, dolphins, sea-horses, &c. &c. On the third tier the ornaments exhibit festoons and wreaths of flowers, sustained by cherubs; leopards, lions, griffins, &c. are the supporters of the fourth. The fronts of the fifth tier nearly correspond with those of the third. The dome presents a sky, in which the flame colour predominates. The *coup d'œil* of the whole is rich and magnificent, and considerably surpassing its former appearance. The stage is sixty feet in length from the wall to the orchestra, eighty feet in breadth from wall to wall, and forty-six feet across from box to box. From the orchestra to the centre of the front boxes the pit is sixty-six feet in length, and sixty-five in breadth, and contains twenty-one benches, besides passage room of about three feet wide, which goes round the seats, and down the centre of the pit to the orchestra. The pit will hold eight hundred persons; price of admission half-a-guinea. In altitude, the internal part of the house is fifty-five feet from the floor of the pit to the dome. There are five tiers of boxes, and each box is about seven feet in depth, and four feet in breadth, and is so constructed as to hold six persons with ease, all of whom command a full view of the stage. Each box has its curtains to enclose it, according to the fashion of the Neapolitan theatres, and is furnished with six chairs. The boxes hold near nine hundred persons. They are private property, or let out for the season to persons of rank and fashion, who pay very large prices for them according to their situation. The gallery is forty-two feet in depth, sixty-two in breadth, and contains seventeen benches, and holds eight hundred persons; price of admission five shillings. The lobbies are about twenty feet square, where women attend to accommodate the company with coffee, tea, and fruit. The great concert room is ninety-five feet long, forty-six feet broad, and thirty-five feet high, and is fitted up in the first style of elegance. The opera usually opens for the season in November, and continues its representations on the Tuesday and Saturday of every week, till June or July. Persons may walk from the pit or boxes behind the scenes during the performance.

Beside these, which may be justly termed regular theatres, there are some of inferior description, at which entertainments of music, singing, and dancing are exhibited by virtue of a licence under the statute 25 Geo. II. c. .

SADLER'S WELLS. The oldest of these places of amusement is Sadler's Wells, of the origin and progress of which
Mr.

Mr. Malcolm has given a description, containing the following particulars.

Although there is nothing in the exterior of the theatre at Sadler's Wells worth describing, further than it is a strong brick building, fronted by a handsome house, its vicinity to the New River, and the number of trees surrounding it, give the place a decided superiority over every other theatre near London.

Without doubt the springs, afterwards known by the appellation of Sadler's Wells, were those of the priory of St. John of Jerufalem. An anonymous author has asserted, that the priests of St. John were accustomed to attend at them, and serve the water to persons afflicted with various disorders; at the same time addressing certain prayers to Heaven for their efficacy. Although no reason can be assigned why such ceremonies should not have been used at these springs, it is probable they have been mistaken by him for the real Holywell. However, his assertion that they were entirely concealed from the public, by order of government, after the Reformation, to prevent superstitious persons from frequenting them, seems to be corroborated by Mr. Sadler's accidental discovery of them, when digging gravel on his grounds, for mending the highways, of which he was a surveyor. As the water was found to be ferruginous, though not so much impregnated with iron as those of Tunbridge Wells in Kent, they were immediately recommended as useful in removing obstructions in the system, and purifying the blood.

A petition from the proprietor to the House of Commons, many years past, states, that the site was a place of public entertainment in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. If this assertion is correct, but no proof is adduced, Sadler was far from being the first possessor for musical purposes and drinking.

Sadler's Wells was inclosed within a wall of considerable extent, with several fine trees within it. A gate faced the New River, on which was inscribed *Sadler's Wells*, under a pediment. The house contained seven windows in front, on the first floor, with angular mullions; and probably the same number below. Francis Forcer owned the Wells in 1735: by which period the proprietor appears to have been doubtful whether he should be permitted to proceed with his exhibitions, as he thought it necessary to petition the parliament for a licence. In it he represented the place as having been used for music, rope-dancing, ground-dancing, a short pantomime, and the sale of liquor, for forty years before,

before, which shews the above entertainments to have commenced in 1695. His application was rejected.

Sir John Hawkins observes of the elder Forcer, that he was a composer and musician, and author of several songs published in the year 1685, 6, and 7. This man and his son held the Wells many years. The latter is said to have been remarkably handsome, tall, and athletic. Sir John adds, that the music performed at this and some other places at that period, hardly deserved the name of a concert, as the instruments were generally confined to violins, hautboys, and trumpets, consequently in unison; or, if a bass instrument was introduced, it was only for the ground bass to divisions in old ballad or country dance tunes. Till within these few years, the pit tickets informed the spectator, that an additional sixpence, to the two shillings, the price of admission, would entitle them to a pint of wine or punch. The pit was at that time filled with high-backed seats, upon each of which was a little shelf, for the support of bottles, and wine glasses broken off in the midst were put into the mouth of the bottle; but the proprietors have lately, much to their honour, voluntarily removed those benches, and made the pit the receptacle of persons full as respectable as those who frequent that portion of the established theatres. The present building was erected in 1765.

ASTLEY'S AMPHITHEATRE. This, and some similar places of amusement, had their origin in the long established taste of this nation for those exhibitions which display the fleetness, sagacity, and docility of the horse. Attitudes on horseback, and the ingenuity of taught, or, as they are commonly termed, learned, horses, are recorded among the popular amusements from a very early period; and were a constant exhibitions at fairs and other meetings where numbers were collected, whose curiosity might be rendered profitable. About the year 1768, Mr. Astley was one of the most celebrated performers in this way; he and a rival equestrian were used to parade the streets in adverse display, and in the afternoon exhibit their feats at large to an audience collected within an inclosure, and accommodated with seats, but open to the sky. The spot chosen by Mr. Astley was on the Surrey side of Westminster Bridge; by degrees he gained the ascendancy over his opponent, improved his entertainment by adding to his horsemanship fantoccini, ombres chinoises, artificial fire-works, music, singing, rope-dancing, interludes, and pantomimes. The theatre was covered, and assumed beauty, regularity, and even splendour. The projector, uniting with an enthusiastic love of the profession to which he devoted himself a great portion of enter-
prize

prize and a persevering spirit, has continued his exhibitions with annual improvements, although his premises have more than once been destroyed by fire, and has extended his exertions to other theatres on a similar plan, besides occasionally visiting Ireland, and even France and Flanders. His efforts have been much aided by his son, who was long celebrated for his agility and grace on horseback.

THE ROYAL CIRCUS. The competitor of Mr. Astley in his early feats was named Hughes, and he, after sustaining a long course of misfortune, was, about the year 1781, sufficiently patronized to establish in St. George's fields a theatre for exercises similar to those at Mr. Astley's; but his house was, at first, far more beautiful, and for some time more fashionably attended. Since the opening it has been frequently unsuccessful, and was once destroyed by fire, but rebuilt. Mr. Hughes, whose affairs were always embarrassed, died some years ago; but the theatre has assumed a more regular character under Mr. Elliston, who has banished equestrian exhibitions, and carries on a display of burlettas with spirit and success.

The three last-mentioned places of amusement, always open on Easter Monday; and they, as well as those which follow, are licensed pursuant to the statute, in order to enable them to give musical entertainments.

OLYMPIC PAVILION. This is a small, subsidiary theatre, erected by Mr. Astley in Wych-street, near Drury-lane, and appropriated to exhibitions similar to those at the Amphitheatre.

ROYALTY THEATRE. This building was erected as a regular theatre for dramatic exhibitions, by John Palmer, a celebrated comedian, and opened in 1787. Only one play was performed, which was Shakspeare's *As you like It*, for the benefit of the London Hospital. The further exhibition of regular dramas was prevented by the magistrates, at the intervention of the managers of the established theatres. Disappointed in his principal hope, Mr. Palmer, with the assistance of an excellent company, carried on the undertaking for two years with exhibitions of music and pantomime; but his expences greatly exceeding the revenue of the theatre, he was obliged to abandon it, and it fell into the hands of various undertakers, some of whom still keep it open during a great portion of the year. It is situated near Well-close-square in the liberty of the Tower Hamlets, a circumstance which led Mr. Palmer inconsiderately to flatter himself that he could play there by means of a licence from the governor of the Tower; but in this he was grievously deceived.

VAUXHALL

VAUXHALL GARDENS. This elegant and cheering place of summer resort is situated near the Thames, in the parish of Lambeth, in the county of Surrey, about a mile and a half from Westminster bridge. It is denominated from the manor of Vaux-hall, or Faukeshall; but the tradition that this house, or any other adjacent, was the property of the popish conspirator Guy Fawkes, is entirely fictitious. The premises now generally called Vauxhall, formerly Spring Gardens Vauxhall, were in 1615 the property of Jane Vaux, widow: the mansion-house upon the estate was then called Stocden's. Jane Vaux left two daughters, one of whom was wife of Barlow, bishop of Lincoln. The moieties of the estate, which was divided between them, passed through various hands till the middle of the last century. Jonathan Tyers, Esq. purchased one moiety of George Dodington, Esq. for the sum of 3800*l.*, in the year 1752, and a few years afterwards bought the remainder. There is no certain account of time when these premises were first opened for the entertainment of the public. The Spring Gardens at Vauxhall are mentioned in the *Spectator*, as a place of great resort. Mr. Tyers was proprietor of the Gardens as tenant, at least twenty years before he purchased the estate, which is still vested in his representatives. It was formerly little more than a tea garden, enlivened with instrumental music; but its rural beauty and easy access rendered it so much frequented, that the proprietor was encouraged to speculate on public patronage, and to augment the attractions by the introduction of vocal music. These gardens are beautiful and extensive, and contain a variety of walks, brilliantly illuminated with variegated lamps, terminated with transparent paintings, and disposed with excellent taste. Facing the west door is a large and superb orchestra, decorated with a profusion of lights of various colours. The whole edifice is of wood, painted white and bloom colour. The ornaments are of a composition something like plaister of Paris. In fine weather the musical entertainments are performed here by a select band of the best vocal and instrumental performers. At the upper extremity of this orchestra, a very fine organ is erected, and at the foot of it are the seats and desks for the musicians, placed in a semi-circle, leaving a vacancy at the front for vocal performers. A curious piece of machinery has of late years been exhibited on the inside of one of the hedges, which is announced at ten o'clock by the ringing of a bell, situated in a hollow, on the left hand, about half way up the walk; by drawing up a curtain, is shewn a most beautiful landscape, of a fine open hilly country,

try, with a miller's house, and a water mill, all illuminated by concealed lights; but the principal object that strikes the eye is a cascade or water-fall. The exact appearance of water is seen flowing down a declivity, and turning the wheel of the mill, it rises up in a foam at the bottom, and glides away. Several moving figures are introduced, particularly a mail coach, the guard of which blows his horn and shoots a robber; and a mad ox who tosses and gores several persons to the vast delight of the spectators. Fronting the orchestra is a large pavilion of the composite order, which particularly attracts the eye by its size, beauty, and ornaments. The different boxes and apartments of these gardens are adorned with paintings, many of which are executed in good style. The labours of Hogarth and Hayman are the most conspicuous. Hayman has chosen his subjects from the works of Shakspeare. In cold or rainy weather, in order to shelter the company, the musical performance is in a great room, or rotunda, seventy feet in diameter, and containing an elegant orchestra. The roof of this rotunda is so contrived, that sounds never vibrate under it; and thus music is heard to the greatest advantage. Next is a piazza of five arches which open into a semi-circle of provisions, with a temple and dome at each end. In the middle of the piazza is a grand portico of the Doric order, and under the arch, on a pedestal, is a beautiful marble statue of Handel, in the character of Orpheus, playing on his lyre, done by the celebrated M. Roubiliac. Fire works of the most ingenious kind have lately been introduced, to increase the allurements of this charming spot. These entertainments keep the company engaged three times a-week during summer till midnight; and the parties who sup are well supplied and accommodated in the boxes, while others dance to the light music played by small bands in various parts of the gardens. Foreigners acknowledge that no country on the continent exhibits a scene at once so splendid and tasteful.

TEA GARDENS. The patronage extended to Vauxhall was probably among the first causes of the establishment of Tea Gardens with music. In the abstract nothing can be considered more innocent and proper than places of resort where the tradesman and his family may indulge in their accustomed afternoon beverage in the open air, enjoying the beauties of the country, and cheered by the sound of a well-touched instrument. In practice, however, it has been found that these Gardens have often become the resort of the most profligate and licentious characters, the worst of prostitutes,
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and most daring of ruffians. Several which were established in St. George's fields have on this account been shut up; to others in the county of Middlesex, a music licence has been most properly refused by the magistrates, and they to whom this privilege is allowed owe it entirely to their uninterrupted good conduct. Among the most considerable of these are Bagnigge Wells, near Gray's Inn lane; and White Conduit House, near Pentonville. There are many others where no music is played.

THE POOR.

In every point of view, the poor must be regarded as a subject of the highest interest. The necessity of providing for those whom misfortunes, unaccompanied by vice or crime, have rendered incapable of earning their own support, enforces itself on every considerate mind, without recourse to argument or exhortation; but, on the other hand, the propriety of rescuing the pittance of those who really have claims to relief from the grasp of those who would audaciously seize and apply it to the maintenance of profligate idleness, has been equally felt, and has given rise to many theories and a great number of statutes and decisions. In England, where nothing that regards the happiness and welfare of any considerable portion of the community has been overlooked by the legislature, many statutes have been passed for enabling the poor to obtain from the more favoured part of mankind the means of subsistence, and, at the same time, limiting such claims to proper objects both in application and supply. In these statutes the principle has been, to consider relief as a right, not as a boon; and as it is to be demanded, the duty to pay has been guarded with as much caution as any similar duty can be, by the care and wisdom of man. The legislature has also used proper means to encourage those associations by which persons most likely to become the objects of parochial relief may, by mutual support and assistance, prevent that contingency from taking place, and many classes who are not immediately exposed to the same danger, have formed societies for the same purpose. Still, as the general benevolence of the legislature, and the care of separate classes of men, must in many instances fail in affording all the assistance requisite for those whom various strokes of fortune have reduced to different degrees of wretchedness, the charity of individuals
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and of corporate bodies has been most extensively displayed in the provision of numerous receptacles and funds, by means of which almost all who feel distress may find assistance; and, if the condition of the world will not allow that misery shall be banished from the abodes of man, its pressure may be mitigated in all possible cases, and the sum of human woe reduced in the greatest attainable degree.

It is here proposed, in the first place, to state the provisions made by the legislature for relieving their poor, as matter of right and of duty; and then to notice some of the most considerable speculations on this great object. In the next place, to advert to the associations established for mutual relief; and lastly, to give an outline of the principal establishments, particularly in and near the metropolis, for the relief of the indigent and unfortunate of different classes.

POOR LAWS. Without treating this subject in a manner that can be considered as technical, a general statement of the scope and effect of these regulations is intended; and the order followed by Mr. Nolan, in his Treatise on the Poor Laws, is adopted, as most capable of affording easy and satisfactory information.

The duty of maintaining the poor, this author observes, is said to have devolved upon the clergy for some ages after the introduction of christianity into England. Originally a fourth, and afterwards a third of their tithes was devoted to this charitable purpose, and administered by the incumbent, under the superintendence of his bishop. The churchwardens and principal inhabitants are supposed to have taken some share in making a judicious application of this parochial fund. But if such interference ever did take place, it was by the rector's permission, for they had no power to direct the expenditure or controul the misuse.

The period is not ascertained at which this portion of tithes was applied to other purposes. We may conjecture that it was gradually re-assumed, through the increase of monastic institutions. The principal or rectorial tithes of many parishes, being appropriated to the use of religious orders, they undertook a share of the burthen, as they retained the funds originally set apart for the poor's support.

The legislature did not interfere with this appropriation of the ecclesiastical revenues, except in a solitary instance. In the fifteenth of Richard the Second an act passed, requiring, "that in every licence to be made in the chancery, of the appropriation of any parish church, it shall be expressed

pressed that the diocefan shall ordain, according to the value of such church, a convenient sum of money to be paid and distributed yearly, of the fruits and profits thereof, to the poor parishioners, in aid of their living and sustenance for ever."

Until the first attack made upon monastic property at the dawn of the Reformation, the clergy were permitted to deal with their revenues in other respects according to private discretion, the statutes of those by whom ecclesiastical corporations were founded or endowed, and the superintending controul of their superiors. Several statutes passed between these periods to regulate the internal economy of religious houses; but their object was to ease them of oppressive visits from the great, and a tributary hospitality exacted by the powerful, which absorbed their revenues, and usurped the portion of charity and the dues of the indigent.

The alms given by these houses, together with hospitals and other institutions, founded and endowed for the purpose, constituted the chief, but not the sole, resources of those who fell back upon their fellow-creatures as unable to sustain themselves. The effects of persons dying intestate were vested in the ordinary, to be applied, among other pious uses, to relieve the poor of his diocese; and private charity derived vigour and energy beyond the common impulse of humanity, from the superstitious notion that prayers purchased by donations to the poor, conferred everlasting happiness upon the dead.

The aged and impotent poor had no other sources of support, until the reign of Henry VIII.; for since the conquest, neither the common nor statute law made any direct provision for the purpose, unless permitting the poor to beg by licence can be deemed an exception.

The author of the Mirror states, indeed, that by the common law, "the poor were to be sustained by parsons, rectors of the church, and the parishioners, so that none of them shall die for default of sustenance." But no method is pointed out by which the performance of this duty could be enforced, or its omission punished. Such abstinence from regulation, on the part of our civil government, is no slight testimony that the clergy devoted a sufficient portion of their immense property to maintain the poor. If any objection can be made to their conduct, it is, that their charities were lavished with inconsiderate humanity, detrimental to the industry and police of the country.

The various and highly penal laws made during this period against vagrants and sturdy beggars, a description of

persons who sprung from, and were nourished in their way of life, by the largesses of misguided piety, gives some countenance to this opinion.

But a more direct proof of the fidelity with which the clergy administered the trust reposed in them, arises from observing, that the first legislative attempt to provide for the impotent poor, was made in the very year when the property of the religious houses was vested in the crown. The first great act of dissolution, 27 Henry VIII. c. 28., affords a decisive testimony, not only of their hospitality, but of their efforts to promote the industry of the country. It enacts, that all persons to whom the king shall demise the sites and demesnes of any of the dissolved houses, shall keep an honest continual house and household there; and for that purpose occupy yearly as much of the demesnes in ploughing and tillage of husbandry, as the said religious houses had done before, on pain of 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* a-month, and the justices in sessions were to inquire thereof. This regulation continued until 21 James I., when the clause was repealed.

The 27 Henry VIII. c. 25. contains the first provision by which particular districts are directed to support their poor, so that none of them of very necessity shall be compelled to go openly in begging. The act was enforced by a trivial penalty of 20*s.* per month. Many schemes were proposed and enforced by subsequent statutes to accomplish this object. They are collected in the fourth chapter of Dr. Burn's History of the Poor Laws, and it is sufficient for the present purpose to point out their general tendency in the words of that respectable author.

"It is curious," he says, "to observe the progress, by what natural steps and advances the compulsory maintenance became established. First, the poor were restrained from begging at large, and were confined to beg within certain districts. Next, the several hundreds, towns corporate, parishes, hamlets, or other like divisions, were required to sustain them with such charitable and voluntary alms, as that none of them of necessity might be compelled to go openly in begging. And the churchwardens, or other substantial inhabitants, were to make collections for them with boxes on Sundays, and otherwise by their discretions. And the minister was to take all opportunities to exhort and stir up the people to be liberal and bountiful. Next, houses were to be provided for them, by the devotion of good people, and materials to set them on such work as they were able to perform. Then, the minister, after the gospel every Sunday,

Sunday, was specially to exhort the parishioners to a liberal contribution. Next, the collectors for the poor, on a certain Sunday in every year, immediately after divine service, were to take down in writing what every person was willing to give for the ensuing year; and if any should be obstinate and refuse to give, the minister was gently to exhort him; if still he refused, the minister was to certify such refusal to the bishop of the diocese, and the bishop was to send for and exhort him in like manner; if he stood out against the bishop's exhortation, then the bishop was to certify the same to the justices in sessions, and bind him over to appear there; and the justices, at the said sessions, were again gently to move and persuade him; and, finally, if he would not be persuaded, then they were to assess him what they thought reasonable towards the relief of the poor. And this brought on the general assessment in the fourteenth year of Queen Elizabeth."

This statute underwent some modifications during the government of that excellent princess. But in the 43d year of her reign, another act was framed upon those which had passed previously, and which is said to have first introduced a right to a maintenance by settlement. Under this statute, with a few alterations to be noticed hereafter, the fund for setting the poor to work, and maintaining those who are unable to do so, is raised at this day.

PARISHES. The more ancient statutes for regulating the poor were enacted to repress vagrancy, not to provide for their maintenance. They refer to the civil division of the kingdom into townships and hundreds, and not to that of parishes, which respects our ecclesiastical institutions. But, after the suppression of monasteries, the first direct mode adopted for raising a fund to relieve the indigent was by collecting alms in the church. This may be attributed to the former liberality of the clergy, and their influence upon the charitable feelings of their parishioners, which conjecture is strengthened by observing that the original means of enforcing contributions, as ordained by statute, were ecclesiastical exhortations. When money was thus collected by parishes, it followed of course that it should be distributed within the same limits. The 43d of Eliz. c. 2. made no alteration in this particular, but devised a more effectual method for raising that fund in parishes, by which the poor were supported there when the statute passed.

It enacted, that "the churchwardens of every parish, and four, three or two substantial householders there, as shall be thought meet, having respect to the proportion and

greatness of the same parish and parishes, to be nominated yearly in Easter week, or within one month after Easter, under the hand and seal of two or more justices of the peace in the same county, whereof one to be of the quorum, dwelling in or near the same parish or division where the same parish doth lie, shall be overseers of the poor of the same."

Sect. 9. provided, that where any parish extends into more counties than one, or into different liberties, the magistrates of which possess an exclusive jurisdiction, that each set of magistrates shall nominate overseers within their respective jurisdictions, who are to execute the office through the entire parish.

By this act, therefore, the appointment of overseers, and every provision for the management of the poor, was confined to parishes; but various inconveniences having arisen from this restriction, subsequent statutes enacted, that where parishes were too large for the poor to be adequately provided for, every township or village should have its overseers, and that these officers might also be appointed for such town and vills as were extra-parochial.

The court of quarter session has no power to divide a parish into townships, by an original order, or to erect a vill into an independent district, which shall maintain its own poor. It is done by two magistrates, appointing overseers, in the same manner as those officers are appointed for districts which have sustained their poor since the statute passed. But magistrates do not usually interfere in the first instance to divide a parish into townships, which has previously maintained its poor in the aggregate. It is more prudent to take the opinion of the Court of King's Bench in another shape, as to the expediency of doing so before they bring a measure into effect, which may be attended with some responsibility. To divide a parish into districts two things are necessary; 1st, It should consist of two or more distinct vills or townships; 2d. It must appear that the parish cannot otherwise conveniently enjoy the benefit of the 43d Eliz. c. 2. It is also decided that a parish which has been divided may reunite by voluntary agreement, for the purpose of maintaining its poor by one joint rate, under the management of joint overseers. But while a parish continues subdivided, the separate divisions are to be considered with respect to the poor laws as separate parishes.

OVERSEERS. Overseers of the poor are, 1. The churchwardens; 2. Inhabitants who are specially appointed to the office, under the statutes already mentioned. Of the appointment-

pointments and duties of churchwardens, some account has already been given in vol. 1. p. 386.

The appointment of overseers for parishes or townships is to be made in counties by two or more justices of the peace. In towns and places corporate, and cities, they are appointed by the mayors, bailiffs, and other head officers, being justices of the peace, and no other justices of peace to enter or meddle there. But it cannot be made by the head officer alone, if there are other corporate justices, the signature of two magistrates being necessary in that case, as well as in counties. When a parish extends into more counties than one, or part lies within the limits of any city, town, or place corporate, the justices of the counties and head officers of the city, shall within their several limits, wards, and jurisdictions, execute the ordinances respecting overseers; but the churchwardens or overseers, or the most part of them of the said parishes, shall, without dividing themselves, execute their office in all places within the said parish.

This appointment is to be made yearly, in Easter week, or within one month after Easter; and if neglected, the justices dwelling within the division, and every mayor, alderman, and head officer of a city, town, or place corporate, where the default shall happen, is to forfeit 5*l.* for every such default, to the relief of the poor, to be levied by the parish officers by distress, under a warrant from the quarter sessions. After the month is expired, and no officer appointed, the court upon application will grant a mandamus to compel the magistrates to make one.

If an overseer dies, or removes from the place for which he is appointed, or becomes insolvent, two justices may, on oath thereof, appoint another in his stead to continue till new ones are appointed.

The appointment of fit persons for the discharge of this office, is a discretionary power vested in the justices, who are to select such householders as they think most proper, having respect to the circumstances of the place and condition of the individual. To enable them to make a fit selection, it is usual for the existing overseers, sometime before the expiration of their year, to form a list of a sufficient number of substantial householders within the parish, proper to succeed to the office. Where this is not done voluntarily, the justices generally issue a precept to the high constable of the division, or constable-wick, commanding him to issue his warrant to the petty constables of those places in which it has been omitted, requiring them to give

the overseers notice, that they shall forthwith deliver the same.

The 43 Eliz. directs that the overseers for parishes "are to be four, three, or two substantial householders, having respect to the proportion and greatness of the parish;" and 13 and 14 Car. II., "that there shall be two or more for townships or villages." More than four, and less than two, cannot be appointed; for the number descending in the act of Elizabeth, shews that it was the intent of the legislature to prevent the appointment of a greater number to a burthen-some office, not likely to be better executed by many than by few.

Women are not incompetent to serve this office, although men are more fit.

Some persons are exempted from the burthen of this office by their necessary attendance on other public duties: such as practising barristers and attornies. A clergyman, though he has no cure of souls; an officer of the customs, though he have not his writ of privilege at the time of his appointment; and all revenue officers, as officers of the Exchequer. Some persons are exempted by statute; such are the president, commons, and fellows of the College of Physicians within the city of London, for a physician is not exempted otherwise. Freemen of the company and corporation of Surgeons in London, who are examined and approved; while they exercise the art. Apothecaries exercising the art within the city of London, and seven miles thereof, if free of the Apothecaries' Company, and those who use and exercise it elsewhere, if they have served seven years apprenticeship. Those who apprehend persons guilty of burglary, or privately stealing to the value of five shillings in a shop, warehouse, coach-house, or stable, and prosecute to conviction, shall have a certificate, which shall discharge them or their respective assignees from all parish and ward offices, in the parish where the felony is committed. Serjeants, corporals, drummers, and privates in the militia, from the time of their enrolment till their regular discharge, are excused from serving as overseers; as are dissenting ministers taking the oaths, and subscribing the declaration and articles of the Church of England, required by the toleration act. But other dissenters who are appointed, and scruple to take the office upon them, have no further privilege than that of serving by deputy, provided the deputy is allowed and approved of by such person and persons, in such manner as the principal should by law have been allowed or appointed.

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As to the form of the order of appointment, it must be under hand and seal, and therefore in writing. It should pursue the words of the act, and appoint the persons named "overseers" *eo nomine*. It must further express, that they are "substantial householders there, or in the parish; and that the appointment is for a parish or township, or what is synonymous, an hamlet, as the case may be." The order must likewise set forth, that the district for which it is made is within the county or corporate place over which the magistrates who make it possess jurisdiction. It must also express the time for which these officers are appointed; and it is not only to be under the hand and seal of two justices, but they must sign and seal in the presence of each other, or it will not be good.

If any "person or persons are aggrieved" by the appointment, they may appeal to the next quarter sessions, whose jurisdiction extends over the place for which they are appointed. On the order either of appointment by the justices, or of the session on the appeal, may be moved into the Court of King's Bench, by *certiorari*; but if those who are appointed do not take one of these steps to get freed from the office; or if doing so, the original order is confirmed, they are liable to an indictment where they refuse to undertake or execute the duty. But they must have notice of their appointment.

The care of the poor is intrusted to them in conjunction with the churchwardens, where there are any. They are required to meet at least once a month in the church, on Sunday, after divine service in the afternoon, under the forfeiture of 20s. to the use of the poor, by every one who absents himself from these meetings without lawful cause; and if negligent in their office, they are subject to the like penalty for every default. The forfeitures to be levied by some or one of the churchwardens and overseers, by warrant of distress from two justices; and in defect of distress, any two such justices may commit the offender to the common gaol, there to remain without bail or mainprize, till the forfeiture shall be paid. But the person aggrieved may appeal to the quarter sessions, whose order shall bind all parties. The power of acting is vested in the major part, and they are to continue in office until the Easter ensuing their appointment, when others are to be elected. The most prominent points of their duty are: 1st, To make a rate, in order to raise a fund for the maintenance of the poor. 2d. To ascertain what poor the place for which they are appointed is bound to maintain. 3d. To remove such persons

as it is not liable to support so soon as they become actually chargeable. 4th. To inspect the economy, and administer to the wants of their proper poor. 5th and lastly, Upon going out of office, to make up and pass their accounts, and deliver over any balance in their hands to their successors, together with the property and documents of the parish.

RATE. The fund raised for the general relief of the poor, is called the Poor's Rate. The power of making a rate is vested entirely in the churchwardens and overseers, or the major part of them, and the concurrence of the inhabitants is not necessary.

But as the statute requires that it should be made by the major part of the parish officers, a rate cannot be made by one overseer.

If the officers refuse to make a rate, the Court of King's Bench, where a case is laid before them upon affidavit, will hear both parties, and, if necessary, compel them to do so by mandamus. But they will not intermeddle with the equality of assessment, or interfere even so far as to command them to make an equal rate. For the overseers are to take care of that in the first instance, and the court of quarter sessions, upon appeal, in the second. They will grant the writ, however, to compel them to rate a particular description of property, if it be altogether omitted.

The act prescribes, that the rate shall be made "with the consent of two or more justices of peace, dwelling in or near the same parish or division where the parish doth lie, whereof one to be of the quorum." The first step therefore to be taken after making the rate is, to carry it to two justices for their consent, or, as it is usually termed, "their allowance." This allowance is, in their individual capacity of magistrates, and not as a court of session, which has no original jurisdiction respecting rates.

Whatever might have been the legislature's intention in requiring the consent of the neighbouring justices to a rate, it has been often decided that they are to act ministerially, and must allow it as a matter of form, without exercising any discretion to refuse where they think it unjustly and improperly made. But if two rates are presented to them by different officers of the same parish, they are said to have an election of signing that which they consider as most equitable.

It is required by 17 Geo. II. c. 9., that the churchwardens and overseers, or other persons authorized to take care of the poor, shall give public notice of the rate on the Sunday after it has been allowed by the justices, otherwise it is null
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and void. It must be published therefore in the church, and on the Sunday ensuing the allowance. After a rate has been thus allowed, it is not to be altered by inserting other names, even with the magistrate's approbation.

TERM. By the statute of Elizabeth, this fund is to be raised weekly *or otherwise*; and by a liberal and useful construction of these latter words, it has been determined that the rate may be laid for a year, a half year, or, as it seems, for any other time short of a year, in advance.

PURPOSES. The general purposes for which this rate is to be raised, as stated in the act of Elizabeth, are, for setting to work those who are able; relieving such as are not; and for apprenticing the children of parents unable to maintain them; also by 9 Geo. I. for purchasing work-houses. 18 Geo. III. c. 19. enacts, that money shall be taken from this fund to repay constables, &c. what they expend for the relief and removal of paupers and vagrants, which the 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 12. s. 18. had directed to be raised by a separate rate. The poor's rate seems applicable to no other purpose, except defraying such law expenses as are necessarily incurred by the overseers in the discharge of their office, at least when the proceedings are directed by the vestry. Thus the salary of an assistant overseer, appointed by a vestry meeting, cannot be paid out of it, nor a sum of money borrowed by the parish to rebuild a workhouse.

Where an overseer disburses money out of his private funds to relieve the poor, he may make a rate during his continuance in office, and reimburse himself from the produce; or if the rate is unpaid at the expiration of his year, the succeeding overseers are directed by statute "to levy such arrears, and reimburse their predecessors all sums expended for the use of the poor, and allowed to be due to them in their accounts."

PERSONS TO BE RATED. The 43d of Eliz. directs that the sums thereby required shall be raised by taxation of every inhabitant, parson, vicar, and others, and of every occupier of lands, &c. in the parish. By this clause the assessment is to be made upon the inhabitants and other occupiers of land, &c. according to the ability of the parish, and the tax is levied upon the person in respect of some particular property possessed or occupied by him. All persons who inhabit the district for which the rate is made, being able to contribute, and all who occupy real property there, although dwelling elsewhere, come within the act. A corporate body is rateable as well as a private individual.

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The king is alone exempt by reason of his prerogative, as not being mentioned in the statute.

Two great principles were laid down by all the judges very soon after the 43 Elizabeth was passed, respecting the rateability of property. First, the assessment is to be made according to the visible estate of the inhabitants, both real and personal. For the statute renders inhabitants liable to this tax, as a distinct class from occupiers of real property, and must therefore affect their personal estate. Second, No inhabitant is to be taxed to contribute to the relief of the poor, in regard of any estate he hath elsewhere in any other town or place.

PROPERTY TO BE RATED. The taxation is to be on lands, houses, tithes impropriate, propriations of tithes, coal-mines, or saleable underwoods in the said parish, to be gathered out of the same parish according to the ability of the same parish. All estate or property within the parish is divided by these resolutions into real and personal. The meaning of *real property*, in the poor laws, appears to have been confined in many cases to immoveable things, which are the direct object of sight and touch, and to be synonymous to what is understood by lands and tenements. More recent decisions seem to consider it as extending likewise to all incorporeal rights which issue out of lands and tenements, and perhaps (though never directly decided) it is to be understood as comprehending all that is signified by the term *hereditament*, which, to follow the definition given by Judge Blackstone, includes "not only lands and tenements, but whatsoever may be inherited, be it corporeal or incorporeal, real, personal, or mixed."

"By *personal property* is understood stock in trade, goods, money, and all other moveables, which may attend the owner's person wherever he thinks proper to go."

Lands and Houses are put by way of example, and not as excluding other kinds of real property of a similar nature; for, not only lands and houses, but shops, sheds, and all things real which render an annual revenue, are subject to the rate. And although the tax is laid upon the land or house, it is in respect of the revenue or annual profits which issue from them, and that, whether they are produced by nature or by means wholly artificial; for, things very distinct from the natural profits of land are rateable under that name; the land being considered as the principal, the profits of which are augmented by the annexation of the accessory. Thus not only those who have the exclusive enjoyment of land for the purpose of turning their cattle on it, are

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rateable

rateable as the tenants; but natural productions connected with the land, as a mineral spring; and artificial profits, as of a towing-path, a dock, or a waggon-way, have been deemed objects to be rated. Incorporeal hereditaments have been deemed rateable as an adjunct profit when annexed to lands and houses, although not issuing from thence. Thus an estate may be rateable in a higher proportion, on account of a right of common being appendant to it. In the same manner, a real subject is rateable according to its annual value, although that value be derived from the annexation of a personal chattel. As where a corporation, being possessed of a house, erected a machine in the street leading by the said house, for the purpose of weighing waggons, carts, &c., loaded with coal, &c., at 2*d.* a ton, the steelyard part of the said weighing machine was, and always had been, in the house. The corporation was rated for the *machine house*, according to the annual value not only of the house itself, but of the clear profits of the machine. And where a building containing a carding machine for manufacturing cotton, not fixed to the premises, but capable of being moved at pleasure, and worth by itself only two guineas *per annum*, the building and machine together were rated at 3*l.*; the court were of opinion whether the machine was actually fixed to the building or not, yet being demised with it, and forming one entire subject, and the rate being on the building, it was properly rated for the entire profits. In like manner the profits of a malt mill, and a billiard table, let with a house, have been allowed to form the estimate of value in the rate. These instances will serve to convey a general notion on this head, but all the distinctions which arise with respect to the rating of incorporeal hereditaments belong properly to a law treatise, and will be found in Mr. Nolan's work, which has here been chiefly relied on.

Tithes impropriate and appropriations of tithes alone are mentioned in the statute; those in the hands of the efficient incumbent, whether parson or vicar being omitted; but as the act directs that the "parson or vicar" shall be taxed, it must intend that it shall be for that property which constitutes the chief subject of their occupancy; tithes being deemed a tenement by our law. Not only parsonage-houses and glebe-lands are rateable in the hands of the occupier, but both rectorial and vicarial tithes have been always deemed so, whether due by common law or by custom. Such are the tithes of fish caught in the sea; for it is a certain annual profit received within the parish without
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any risk run. A modus, or other composition paid in lieu of tithes, is equally liable to this tax. So also a rate or assessment directed by statute to be made in lieu of all tithes and other ecclesiastical dues, is rateable, unless exempted by express provision, as are likewise oblations or other offerings, which constitute the rectorial or vicarial dues, and even a pension payable to the parson.

Coal Mines form the next species of property mentioned in the statute. These are rateable by the express words of the act. But it has been held, as other mines were known in the country when the statute passed, the mention of this inferior species of mine amounts to a tacit exemption or exclusion of all others, such as lead, tin, copper, iron mines, or any other but coal mines. The owners of duties arising out of metallic mines, such as the lot and cope of lead mines, the toll and farm tin of tin mines, are rateable when they are paid clear of deduction, and freed from the hazards of working. Neither does the exception extend beyond mines properly so called. Lime works are not comprehended within it, but their profits are rateable in the hands of the occupier, although uncertain in their amount, owing to the expence and risk of working. Upon the same principle, the occupier of a slate quarry is held rateable; and it was held to be so clear as not to endure discussion, that clay pits worked (for the purpose of getting potter's clay) at considerable expence, and with considerable, though fluctuating profit, are rateable.

Saleable Underwoods. Woods, consisting of what is called great wood or timber trees, of twenty years growth and upwards, are exempt from contributing to the poor, as they are freed from tithes; but this exemption of wood is not confined to trees coming within the strict legal description of timber, such as oak, ash, and elm: it is sufficient if the trees in question are deemed so by the custom of a particular district. Thus wood lands, the trees growing thereon consisting chiefly of beech, and some oak and ash trees, there being no coppice wood, and the underwood being left to grow as standards, were held not rateable, beech being found by the sessions to be *timber*, by the custom of that particular part of the country. And it retains the privilege, although it be put to the uses of underwood, being cut and made up in parcels for firing.

EXEMPTIONS. Several local acts grant exemptions to particular species of property which would otherwise be rateable, but these it is not necessary to mention; except for the purpose of noticing the decision, that even where a rate was

was by a local statute directed to be raised by the assessment of money out at interest, government stock was not money out at interest, within the meaning of this local statute, and therefore not taxable under it; and also, that it was not taxable under the 43 of Eliz., not being local visible property within the parish.

PERSONAL PROPERTY. The statute makes no specific mention of any other kind of property than those which are already treated of. But as it requires that the several inhabitants should be taxed according to the ability of the parish, it renders them liable to the extent of that ability, however constituted. The pecuniary funds, or ability of the inhabitants, when referred to their sources, are divisible into three kinds: 1st, What arises from real property. 2d. What arises from capital stock, or as it is here called, personal property. And 3d. The produce of personal labour, or, in other words, "what arises from the ingenuity of a man's head, or the work of his hands." The opinion that the profits of personal labour are not rateable *eo nomine*, or in the moment in which they are made, is confirmed by several decided cases. Thus an officer in the salt office, or in the customs; a captain in the navy, or merchants' service; and a clerk to a merchant, have been held not rateable for their respective salaries; nor an attorney for the profits of his profession; nor a silk throwster for the profit he makes by cleaning and throwing his employer's silk; for it would be to tax labour, and not pecuniary ability.

As it was unusual to assess personal property for near two centuries subsequent to the statute, the court felt considerable reluctance to decide upon its rateability. Such an universal agreement to omit it was considered as strong evidence to shew the impossibility of rating it. But it was at length held to be clearly rateable for its profits where they can be ascertained, and a mandamus was granted to compel the justices to assess it. A clothier, therefore, a draper or shopkeeper, and a merchant, are rateable for their stock in trade; a butcher for capital employed in his business. The owners of ships are, when resident, rateable to that parish in which the ships lie, if the port is their home. In one case the court seemed of opinion, that the stock in trade of a brewer was not rateable; but this was before the general question respecting the rateability of personal property was determined; the decision turned upon another point, and as there is no principle upon which it is to be distinguished from any other stock in trade yielding profit, it has since been decided to be rateable. Though the profits

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of the subject assessed. Therefore the preacher of a meeting-house is not rateable as the occupier, unless he lets out the pews so as to reap a profit from it, and there are many similar cases. Where a profit does exist, it is immaterial whether the return is annual, and in a fixed unvarying proportion; or whether it is uncertain in the amount, and subject to risk and expence.

Several decisions have taken place upon the rateability of real property in the hands of particular persons, which have chiefly arisen in the case of charitable institutions, and property occupied for public purposes. If there is no beneficial occupier for private emolument, the property is not liable to assessment; but when such an occupier does exist, he is rateable, although the ultimate object of his occupation be to promote a charitable institution, or advance the public good. The distinction as to where charities are rateable, and where they are not so, seems to depend upon this—whether there is any body who can be rated as occupier. The trustees are not rateable when they intermeddle with the property merely as trustees, because their occupation is not beneficial. Neither are the poor, where they are mere inmates without power or controul over the premises which they inhabit, for they are not occupiers. But where the objects of a charity are occupiers, or where another is a beneficial occupier for their benefit, as in the cases of hospital lands, the occupier is rateable, without considering the charitable purpose to which the profits are dedicated, although the rate must ultimately come from thence. Nay, where the charity is appropriated to assist the parochial poor for whose support the rate is raised, the property seems liable to the rate if occupied, although the assessment may be nugatory in some instances, and highly improper in others.

Property occupied solely for the public use is not subject to assessment, neither is property in the immediate hands of the crown. Thus the royal palaces are not liable, and never have been rated. But the sovereign's immunity from this tax does not extend beyond his actual occupation. Wherever an occupier exists for private benefit he may be rated; and it makes no difference whether he is a civil or military officer of the crown.

To render personal property rateable, it must not only be in the possession of the person rated, but, when distinctly assessed as moveables, it should be his actual property, and must likewise yield a profit in the hands of him who is rated. Upon this ground, a sum of money in a man's possession,

sion, and the furniture of his house, have been held not rateable.

Property, whether real or personal, or rather the product upon which the rate is laid, must arise in the district for which the assessment is made. In lands or tenements, this must of course be in the place where the thing itself is situate, whether the proprietor actually reside in the parish or not.

PRINCIPLES OF RATING. The sums raised for the poor's relief should be assessed upon the productive value of all property occupied in the district for which the rate is made, for the tax has reference to the present local ability and situation of those who are to pay it. A parish therefore cannot have a standing rate, neither should an old one be confirmed, for the proportions must vary with the fluctuations of property. It will be bad, likewise, if made according to the land-tax. Also, if two districts of a parish agree that each shall contribute to maintain the entire poor in a certain proportion, and act under it for a long period, yet it will not be binding, if upon inquiry it appears that the contributions are unequal in the present state of the parish. But the assessment in the old rate may be a good reason for making one similar in the new, unless there is some increase or decrease of value. The rating of personal property presents numerous and serious difficulties in its principles and proportions. It is not usually rated. It is difficult to ascertain its actual amount, unless by using those arbitrary means, which are neither provided by the poor laws, nor permitted by the spirit of our constitution. Sometimes, a fair disclosure of his effects is supposed to injure a commercial man, and he would rather chuse to submit to the imposition of an exorbitant assessment, than seek redress at the hazard of his credit. These, and other reasons, have induced most parishes to refrain, as it were, by common impulse, from assessing personal property since the 43d Elizabeth. Its liability is no longer questionable; but the apprehension of mischievous consequences has usually prevented its being rated even in manufacturing counties, where the omission presses upon the landed proprietor with considerable hardship.

Real property is now assessed upon the principle, that the tax shall be imposed on the actual productive value of the particular subject at the time of making the rate, whether that is more or less than what it had been when the former rate was made.

In taxing other hereditaments, such as tolls, water-works, and coal-mines, of which the produce is tolerably certain,

the profits of the last form a fair ground to estimate those of the rising year, unless reasons are given to increase or reduce it.

It has never been expressly decided whether a rate must be made upon the full value of the property in the parish, or whether it may be laid upon a portion of that value, such as two-thirds, or one-half, provided the relative proportions of value are preserved in all. It appears, however, that such rates have been questioned upon other grounds, and sustained, without any objection made on this account.

OF RATING IN AID. The poor are to be sustained by parishes in the first instance; but they may sometimes be too numerous and burthensome for a particular parish to support. The 43 Eliz. c. 2. sect. 3. provided, therefore, that if the justices perceive that the inhabitants of a parish are unable to levy among themselves sufficient sums of money for the purposes of the act, the said two justices shall tax, rate, and assess as aforesaid, any other of other parishes, or out of any parish, within the hundred where the said parish is, to pay such sum and sums of money to the churchwardens and overseers of the said poor parish, for the said purposes as the said justices shall think fit. But if the said hundred shall not be thought by the said justices able and fit to relieve the said several parishes unable to provide for themselves as aforesaid, then the justices of the peace at their general quarter sessions, or the greater number of them, shall rate and assess as aforesaid any other of other parishes, or out of any parish within the said county, for the purposes aforesaid, as in their discretion shall seem fit. Whenever there is any person or parish within the hundred in which the parish unable to maintain its poor is situate, of ability sufficient to supply the deficiency, the rate in aid is to be made by two justices. They have power to determine the inability of the parish which applies for assistance, and the capacity of those upon whom they make an order to contribute.

MEANS OF ENFORCING PAYMENT. By 43 Eliz. c. 2. s. 4. if the rate and all arrearages be not paid voluntarily, present and subsequent churchwardens and overseers may levy them by distress and sale of the offender's goods; and in defect of such distress, he may be committed to the county gaol. By 17 Geo. II. c. 38. s. 11. succeeding overseers were empowered to levy arrears previously incurred, and to reimburse their predecessors out of the money levied, such sums as they had expended for the poor's use, and which are allowed to be due to them in their accounts.

Before

Before any step is taken to enforce payment under these statutes, the rate must be lawfully demanded. And if the person liable should die after such demand, and before further proceedings, it seems the better opinion and safer practice to demand it likewise from his personal representatives. If the money is tendered by any other than the person rated, as by the landlord on his tenant's account, it must be received. Where payment is refused, the overseers should apply to two magistrates of the county or place in which the district is situated for which the rate is made. This is usually done at what are called petty sessions, which are periodical meetings of magistrates who reside within a convenient extent of country subject to their jurisdiction, and are held weekly or otherwise for the discharge of such duties as require the conjunction of at least two magistrates to perform. When the justices entertain the information, their first duty is to summon the party, or in case of death, his personal representative, to hear them upon the complaint. It was the practice formerly to grant a conditional warrant in the first instance to distrain in case of non-payment; and in a reported case, a mandamus was directed to justices to sign a warrant of distress for levying the poor's rate without summoning the party. But the Court of King's Bench, upon mature deliberation, disregarded these precedents; because a distress to levy this rate is in the nature of an execution. The justices must, therefore, exercise a discretion of enquiring into the circumstances, and it is of course necessary that a summons to the person who refused to pay, should precede it. The party, when served with a summons, either refuses to obey, or appears in conformity to the tenor of the summons. If he does not appear, or offer such a satisfactory excuse as ought to induce the magistrates to postpone the hearing until another time, the warrant of distress should issue upon proof of service of the summons. But if there be any just reason to suppose that granting the warrant may subject the justices to an action, such as, that the rate is void for any cause; as, for instance, that the place for which it is made is without their jurisdiction; they may require the parish officers to shew that their act in granting the warrant will not be illegal. But they can inquire no further than is necessary for this purpose, since they are civilly answerable in no other cases to persons who may be aggrieved by their warrant. If the defendant appears, he may shew for cause why the warrant should not issue, any thing which amounts to payment, as, that the sum at which he stands rated has

been tendered by him, or by some person on his behalf, and refused, and that he or they are still ready to pay it. That he has paid the assessment to one of the parish officers, who has not accounted for it. He may also urge any circumstances which shew the rate to be a nullity, into which the magistrates might inquire of their own accord. Such as, that public notice has not been given of the rate in the church on the next Sunday after it was allowed by the justices. That the place for which it is made is not within their jurisdiction, or that it is not made for the proper district. That the subject for which he is assessed, is not by law rateable. That he is not liable to the rate, either as not being the occupier at all, or as not being a rateable occupier. For if the rate is void, those who are rated may treat it as a nullity; and the warrant being illegal where the assessment is so, the magistrates are not compellable to issue one even by mandamus; and the Court will not grant the writ for the purpose, since it would be no justification in an action of trespass brought for a distress taken under the warrant. But no other circumstances can be enquired into at this hearing, excepting such as amount to payment, or prove that the rate is a nullity. The quantum, or any overcharge in the rate, is only to be controverted by an appeal to the quarter sessions. If the defendant omits to dispute it there, he is supposed in legal construction to have acknowledged the propriety of his assessment; neither can the magistrates refuse their warrant, from the party's utter inability to discharge his quota, although it may be a good ground for appealing against a rate made upon him, for personal property.

Formerly, if notice of appeal was given, it took away the magistrate's jurisdiction to distrain until the appeal was either abandoned or decided; but now, by 41st Geo. III. c. 23. s. 1. the justices may proceed to recover by distress, so much only as the person then rated, or any occupier of the premises was rated in the last effective rate. The justices do not act ministerially, but have discretionary power to grant or refuse the warrant. But where no sufficient cause is shewn against granting it, they must issue it.

The assessments in a legal rate become due from the moment that it is allowed and published; and may be demanded, and the warrant granted before the time has expired for which the rate is made. When the warrant is thus issued, it becomes the duty of those to whom it is directed, to levy under it, and they are alone answerable for their conduct, if it is good in its form, and properly granted. As to the place
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in which this levy is to be made, the most obvious is the parish for which the assessment is made. But by 17 Geo. II. c. 38. s. 7. the goods of any person assessed and refusing to pay, may be levied by warrant of distress, not only in the place for which the assessment is made, but in any other within the same county or precinct. If sufficient distress cannot be found in the said county or precinct, on oath made thereof before some justice of any other county or precinct (which oath shall be certified under the hand of such justice on the said warrant), such goods may be levied in such other county or precinct by virtue of such warrant or certificate. In taking goods under a warrant of distress, the law gives a power in some respects different from that which obtains in distresses made by landlords for recovery of rent. Under the statutes relating to levying a poor's rate, two sorts of things found on the premises of the person distrained are protected from the statutory execution. 1st, Such as are not the actual property of the person rated, and refusing to pay; the act of Eliz. expressly requiring, that the sum due, shall be levied by distress and sale "of the offender's goods." 2d, Things affixed to the freehold, and which therefore do not come properly under the legal denomination of "goods," as they are called by the act of Eliz., or "goods and chattels," as by the subsequent statutes. The goods are to be publicly sold at the time directed in the warrant, unless the sum due, with reasonable charges for taking and keeping the distress, is previously paid. When sold, the officer who makes the distress is empowered by 27 Geo. II. c. 20. to deduct the reasonable charges of taking, keeping, and selling the distress out of the money arising by the sale; and the overplus, after fully satisfying and paying these charges, and the sum directed to be levied, is to be returned on demand to the owner of the goods and chattels distrained. If the officer does not obtain sufficient goods by his first distress to satisfy the exigence of his warrant, he may make a second under it for that purpose, although he could have taken enough upon his first coming on the premises. If there should be no distress, the party may be committed by warrant of two justices to the common goal, there to remain without bail or mainprize, until he discharge the sum at which he is assessed; and when it is intended to proceed to this extremity, the summons to appear before the magistrates should be served upon the defendant in person. But no parish ought to take this course, unless by way of punishment, where the defendant has fraudulently disposed of his goods.

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SETTLEMENTS. In treating on the origin and history of the law of settlements, Mr. Nolan observes ; It is difficult to trace this law with precision to its original foundation. The poor, as regulated by act of parliament, were originally distinguished into two classes : beggars able to work, whom it punished with severity as criminals ; and beggars, who being unable to maintain themselves from age or bodily infirmity, were compelled to live by the alms of charity.

The settlements provided for this latter class of unfortunate people, are easily followed through the statute-book. The earliest act is the 12 R. II. c. 7., and many subsequent statutes regulate, though imperfectly, the mode of removing vagrants to some place of their former inhabitancy, or to that of their birth, and also the provision to be made for the casual or helpless poor.

The cases which were decided before the passing of the statute 13 and 14 Car. II. tend to shew that the obligation to relieve impotent and settled poor, continued not only while they remained in the parish, but after leaving it, until they became vagrants, or had acquired other settlements. But it is difficult to point out the origin of the power of removal in such cases, as it seems to have been exercised by justices of the peace before that act which gives it expressly. That of removing vagrants and common beggars was created by statute. Ever since 14 Eliz. c. 5. persons of this description were transferred to their parish under pass-warrants, which consigned them from constable to constable, in the same manner as vagrants are passed at this day. Magistrates would have to determine in all cases when they were called upon to grant relief, whether it was asked by a person who was necessitous from casualty, or by a beggar and vagrant. But whether the practice arose from a liberal interpretation of these statutes, or crept into use from justices not having originally attended to the distinction pointed out by the act, but regarding every person asking parish relief as a common beggar ; or whether it originated with the magistrates in sessions, by reason of their appellate jurisdiction over the parish rate and overseers' accounts ; or in what other mode it commenced, or to what extent it was exercised, is no where expressly laid down.

The statute last alluded to gives a more effectual power of removing paupers than had previously been possessed by magistrates. It recites that, Whereas, by reason of some defects in the law, poor people are not restrained from going from one parish to another, and therefore to endeavour to settle themselves in those parishes where there is the best

best stock, the largest commons or waste to build cottages, and the most woods for them to burn and destroy; and when they have consumed it, then to another parish, and at last become rogues and vagabonds, to the great discouragement of parishes to provide stocks when it is liable to be devoured by strangers: and enacts, that it shall and may be lawful, upon complaint made by the churchwardens, or overseers of the poor of any parish, to any justice of the peace, within forty days after any such person or persons coming to settle as aforesaid, in any tenement under the yearly value of ten pounds, for any two justices of the peace, whereof one to be of the quorum, of the division where any person or persons that are likely to be chargeable to the parish shall come to inhabit, by their warrant to remove and convey such person or persons to such parish where he or they were last legally settled, either as a native, householder, sojourner, apprentice, or servant, for the space of forty days at the least, unless he or they give sufficient security for the discharge of the said parish, to be allowed of by the said justices.

This act places vagrant beggars on the same footing with other impotent poor, in respect to the methods of acquiring a settlement; and puts it beyond doubt, that the settlement gained is to continue until a new one is acquired. It gives power to justices of peace in all cases of removal and settlement, and prevents a settlement being acquired by the mere act of residence for a month, without being chargeable, as might have been done previously; for it enables two magistrates to remove not only those who become chargeable before they have resided for the space of forty days, but such as they shall in their discretion deem likely to become so, unless they give security for the discharge of the parish. Prior to this statute, no one could be removed unless he were in a state of vagrancy, or had become actually chargeable to some other place than that of his settlement. But this act regards all persons of an inferior condition, who change their habitation as vagrants and vagabonds, unless they come to reside upon a tenement of 10*l.* a year value. Lastly, it gives a right of appealing to the next quarter sessions, to those who are aggrieved by the order.

A place of settlement may be defined a district maintaining its poor, to which persons become removeable for the purpose of obtaining the relief given by 43 Eliz. c. 2.

The several methods of acquiring settlements, may be divided into two general classes; 1. Such as are communi-

cated without a residence of forty days, which may be called derivative, or natural settlements; and are, 1. marriage; 2. parentage; 3. birth.

2. Where a residence of forty days is necessary, which may be called acquired settlements; and are gained, 1. By inhabitancy as an hired servant; 2. as an apprentice; 3. serving an office; 4. where a person has a tenement of 10*l.* a year value; 5. where he has an estate; 6. where he pays a share towards the public taxes or levies of the parish, other than as excepted by 35 Geo. III. c. 101.

On the subject of settlements these general rules are laid down. First, A subsequent settlement always destroys that which is previously gained by the same person; and contending parishes are to look to this as the only means by which a settlement once actually gained can be defeated. A man cannot give away, or release, or suspend his settlement; for the public is concerned in it, as well as himself. Second, That no settlement can be legal which is brought about by fraud or compulsion.

MARRIAGE. Wherever a woman intermarries with a man who has obtained a known settlement, it is communicated to her, although she has never been where it is gained. And every succeeding settlement that he acquires is in like manner transferred to her immediately. But when the husband has no settlement, not being born in England or Wales, nor having acquired one during his residence, or which is the same thing, if born here, that which he had cannot be discovered; the wife's settlement is not totally destroyed by marriage, but remains suspended during his life, or perhaps more properly during co-habitation; for if the husband having no settlement, dies, or leaves his wife, and it is not known whether he is living or dead; or running away, lives separate from her; or being unable to maintain her, consent to the removal, the settlement she had previous to marriage continues.

BIRTH. The original settlement of legitimate children is that which the father has at the time of their birth, and it makes no difference that the child is born in another parish, or that the father dies previous to the birth, or that neither he nor the child has been in the place of settlement since the latter was born. The manner in which the parental settlement has been acquired is equally immaterial. It may be gained by the father's own act, or derived from his father or grandfather, or any other more remote relation to whom a settlement is first traced in the direct ascending line. But although the father's settlement at the time of birth

birth is the original settlement of his legitimate offspring, it is superseded if the parent gains one subsequently, while the child continues to form a part of his family. Where the father has not a known settlement before his child becomes chargeable, that which the mother had previous to her marriage is communicated in the same manner, and subject to the same rules. But as the father's settlement, where he has one, must always fix that of his child, it is obvious that recourse should be had to the settlement of the father's mother, prior to that of the pauper's own mother, for that is the father's settlement, if *his* father have none; and upon the same principle, that of the father's grandfather's mother precedes that of his own mother, and so on to the more remote degrees of lineal ancestry. The settlement which a child derives from its mother during the father's lifetime, must be acquired previous to her existing marriage, for she can acquire none during coverture, except through her husband.

But if the father die, the mother becomes the head of the family, in which event nature and the law cast the obligation to provide for it upon her. A settlement therefore gained in her own right, during widowhood, is communicated to her unemancipated children, although past the age of nurture. But if she acquire a settlement by another marriage, it is not gained as the head of a family, but as a subordinate part of some other, and therefore is not communicated to her former offspring.

EMANCIPATION. There are two cases in which the child is considered as being severed from the parent's family, without any reference to a separation in fact. 1. When a child has obtained a settlement in its own right, that previously acquired from the parents is superseded, and it no longer follows one that is subsequently gained by them. The age at which a child is said to be capable of acquiring a settlement by its own act, is seven years, at the expiration of forty days, after which it may acquire one. 2. Where it becomes the head or part of another family by marrying, that being a relation inconsistent with a subordinate situation in that of its parents. Thus a son being of full age and married, afterwards removed into another parish with his father, where he continued to live with him, was held not to follow a settlement which the father subsequently acquired there. But marriage seems necessary to make a child the head of a family when there is no separation. An actual separation is necessary in all other cases; for a child may, after attaining the age of twenty-one, derive a new settle-
ment

ment from its parent, provided it remain at the time of its acquirement a member of the father's family, with an unbroken continuance.

BASTARDS. An illegitimate child is settled in the place of its birth, as lawful children are whose parents have no settlement. From this rule there are some exceptions. The first by the common law, is where a woman with child of a bastard is removed out of one parish into another, through the fraud or collusion of its officers. In this case the child, wheresoever it is born, is settled in the parish from which the mother has been collusively removed. The second is, where a child is born after an order has been made for the mother's removal to some other parish. In this event, whether it is born in one of the contending parishes, or in some intermediate one, while the officers are in the act of removing, or using reasonable diligence to remove the woman, it is settled in the parish against which judgment is given, if the order is contested; or in that to which the removal is made, where it acquiesces without appeal. The third exception is, where the child is born while the mother is in actual custody of the law; as where she is in the house of correction, or in the county goal: here it follows the settlement of the mother; or if that cannot be known, it is to be provided for in the parish where she was apprehended. A fourth exception seems to be, where the child is born in a workhouse belonging to parishes united, under 9 Geo. I. c. 7., and which is situated in a third parish. Here it shall be considered as settled in the parish to which the mother belongs.

There are also several exceptions by statutes. 1. No child received in the Foundling Hospital shall thereby gain a settlement in the parish where the hospital is situate. 2. Where a woman wandering and begging, is delivered of a child in any parish or place to which she doth not belong; the child of which she is delivered, if a bastard, shall not be settled in the place where so born, nor be sent thither by a vagrant pass; but the settlement of the woman shall be deemed the settlement of the child. 3. No bastard child, born in a lying-in hospital, shall be legally settled in the parish wherein the hospital is situated; but shall follow the mother's settlement. 4. The like rule with respect to bastards born in houses of industry. 5. By the act for the encouragement and relief of friendly societies, it is enacted, that every child which shall be born a bastard in any parish, township, or place, during the mother's residence therein, under the authority of this act, shall have and be deemed

to have the same settlement which the mother has, or is entitled to at the time of the birth of such child. 6. Where an order of removal has been obtained for the purpose of removing an unmarried woman with child, and it shall be suspended on account of her sickness or infirmity, and during such suspension she is delivered of a bastard child, such child is to be settled in the parish, or place in which was the legal settlement of the mother at the time of her delivery. The only proof required to establish this kind of settlement is, that the pauper was actually born within the parish or township. This may be effected either by the testimony of the parent's relations, or any other person acquainted with the fact.

SETTLEMENT BY HIRING AND SERVICE. The first statute which required a further qualification to confer a settlement beyond mere residence, as a servant for the space of forty days, was 3 W. III. c. 11. s. 6. It enacts, that if any *unmarried* person, not having *child or children*, shall be lawfully *hired* into any parish or town for one year, *such service* shall be adjudged and deemed a good settlement therein. Some inconveniences having arisen from the construction of this act, a clause was introduced in 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30., which provides, that no person so hired shall have a settlement "unless he continues and abides in the same service for a whole year."

The benefit of a settlement is therefore given to those who are unmarried, and have no child, and under this statute it has been held, that the period at which the statute requires the party to be unmarried, is the time when the contract is made. Therefore, if a servant marries during service, or even after the hiring, but before his year begins, it will not prevent his settlement. Children are adjudged to mean, such as, by following their parent's settlement, might become chargeable to that parish in which one may be acquired under the new servitude. So that, if legitimate children are emancipated at the time from which the parent engages to serve, he may gain a settlement. But they must be emancipated at the commencement of his contract.

With respect to the hiring, the following are the principal rules to be observed; 1. there must be a contract; 2. it must be a contract for servitude, and intended only as such; 3. it must be an entire contract for at least a complete year's prospective service; 4. it must contain no special exception, exempting the servant from his master's controul during its continuance. The hiring must be for a
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bonâ fide service, and if it be so, no circumstance of implication will vitiate it. But there must be one entire contract for a complete year's service. Successive hirings, or such as follow each other in uninterrupted succession, without an intervening interval of time, if *severally* less than a year, are insufficient to confer a settlement, although they amount to a much longer period of service, when taken together. Thus an hiring for two successive periods of eleven months each; or for two successive half years; or from May-tide to Lady-day, and a new agreement on Lady-day to serve till the May-tide ensuing is insufficient. The hiring must also be prospective. The terms used in the statute express futurity, and no part of the year for which the agreement is made, should be elapsed at the time when it is entered into. It may be for a year, to commence at some future time, as a week or a fortnight after the hiring; and the service need not commence in fact at the time when the servant's year commences, inasmuch as it may be dispensed with by the master. But where the agreement is made so that by-gone time is to be calculated as part of the year, and included in computing it, this is called a retrospective hiring, and no settlement can be gained by service under it. Thus where a servant went into a place upon liking, and *after* he had lived there eight weeks, his master hired him for a year, *to commence from the beginning of the said eight weeks*, it was a retrospective hiring. There are many instances, however, in which no particular period is mentioned for the continuance of service; such cases have been distinguished by the appellation of general hirings. When the contract is thus silent, and nothing appears upon the face of the transaction from whence its duration can be deduced, the law, in conformity to the several statutes which regulate the service, especially of servants in husbandry, infers that it is made for a year.

The term of service required by the statute is one whole year; and therefore a service which is but a day or two short of a year, does not satisfy the statute, nor confer a settlement. The performance of service may be either *actual* or *constructive*. Where the servant continues personally to fulfil the duties of his station towards his master in the terms of his contract, without intermission, it is actual service. Where he does not perform these duties, but they are dispensed with, the service is *constructive*. The law invests the master with authority, to enforce performance of the servant's contract; but having gone thus far, it leaves him to exact or remit the service as suits his convenience or discretion.

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He may compel his servant to work at all lawful seasons, or suffer him to remain unemployed. If he should prove remiss and negligent, the master may punish remissness, and enforce attention; but this idleness, whether permitted or otherwise, has no effect on the settlement, whilst he continues in the service, that being all which the statute requires. The distinctions between a dispensation from service, and a dissolution of the contract have given rise to many decisions in which the circumstances of each case have been considered with much nicety.

Two points may be noticed in this place.

1. By 37 Geo. III. s. 22., the inrolment of a servant as a militia-man, by virtue of that act, shall not rescind the contract, or vacate the employment between him and his master, unless the militia in which he is inrolled shall be embodied or called out by his majesty, or ordered so to be, in pursuance of the act, or unless he shall leave the service for the purpose of being trained and exercised for the space of twenty days, in pursuance of the act, and shall not return to the same service at the end of such twenty days, or as soon after as reasonably may be; allowing an abatement from his wages in proportion to his absence from the service, to be settled by a justice of the peace.

2. If the master applies to a justice to have his servant discharged, and his cause of complaint does not warrant it, the servant's dismissal against his consent, will not vitiate the service, where the magistrate makes no order, although he should be of opinion that it is a valid cause of discharge. On the other hand, if the master and servant voluntarily go before a magistrate, and the latter is discharged, it amounts to a solemn dissolution of the contract.

And it is to be observed, that although 3 & 4 W. III. requires an hiring, and 8 & 9 W. III. service for a year, yet the service need not be performed under the yearly hiring. They must be co-extensive in duration, but need not be contemporaneous; for the statutes do not expressly declare that the service shall be for that year for which the servant is hired, or even for a whole year afterwards. Service therefore under a yearly hiring, will connect with service under other hirings, but subject to certain rules and restrictions. This construction was given to the statutes soon after the 8 & 9 W. III. passed. It was founded on a strict interpretation of their provisions, which the Court would not carry beyond the letter, from an opinion that they were restrictive of the subject's liberty, and in derogation of a
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common law birthright, and that the power given to parish officers should be confined to narrow limits, since the dread or suspicion of anticipated burthens, by reason of future poverty, might form the sole reason for removing the industrious poor. But judges, who have held themselves bound by the authority of this decision, have questioned its propriety. Indeed, the design of the statute seems to point to a contrary construction; and it has been stated, that the place of settlement can be of no consequence to the pauper, since he is equally entitled to support wherever it may be. But as the law stands settled, if there is an hiring from March to Michaelmas, and then an hiring for a year, service under the first hiring may be connected with service from Michaelmas to the ensuing April, under the year's hiring, and confers a settlement, although the servant leave his place in April, and never fulfil his yearly contract. This is put as one of several parallel instances to be met with in the books, and which differ from each other in accidental particulars only. The mere circumstances of the number and duration of the hirings are immaterial to the connection of services, provided one is for a year. The rest may be for successive years, or months, or even weeks. Neither is it necessary that the services to be performed under each should be of the same kind. It may be as an out-door servant under one, and a family servant under the other. He may be employed, first, to milk and plough; and secondly, as a carter. But to gain the benefit of this connective hiring the servant must, at the last time of engaging, be in the same situation that he was at the first; that is, unmarried, and without children.

Service performed with different masters is an abiding in the same service, and confers a settlement where the contract continues unaltered in other respects. A servant hired for a year, served about half of it, when his master died. The executor asked him, if he was willing to serve him for the remainder of the year, according to the bargain made between the testator and him. The pauper assented, and served him in another parish, where the executor lived, during the remainder of the year, when he received his wages. It was held that he gained a settlement in the executor's parish. For the act of parliament does not require the service to be the same as to place or person, but only a continuance of the same service. This is a continuance of the same service and not a new contract. The contract was not dissolved by the master's death. The servant was obliged to serve the executor, and the executor to pay

pay him. But to constitute the same service when the master is changed, the original contract must remain. If that is dissolved, service with a new master under a new contract, though entered into before the expiration of the original year with the first master's consent, who pays the year's wages, is not the same service, nor will it connect with that performed under the original hiring so as to confer a settlement.

The residence to gain a settlement must be in a parish or township having overseers; the servant must reside forty days in that place where the settlement is claimed; and he must remain under the obligation of his yearly contract during some part of such residence.

The laws which provide for the maintenance and removal of the indigent poor, extend only to parishes and townships for which overseers are appointed. No settlement therefore can be gained either by residence as a servant, or in any other capacity in extra-parochial places, where there are no overseers.

As to the time and place of residence. He may either reside in one parish or township during his entire servitude, or in several. If he reside in different places, he may inhabit, partly where a settlement is to be acquired, and partly where it can not. The residence also may be either during forty successive days, or for the same period at unconnected intervals. As a residence for forty days confers a settlement, it follows that if a servant reside for distinct periods of forty days in different parishes, his settlement floats during the continuance of his year, and is determined by the last residence of forty days. For each residence for that period confers a settlement conditionally, and as a latter settlement supercedes the former; it is the residence for the last forty days of the year's service which confers the settlement.

But it sometimes happens that the servant may live in one parish, and his service be performed in another. The statutes of William refer only to the parish or township in which the service is done, regarding it as the place of settlement. It must be owned that there seems some little anomaly in the law, which connects every other requisite for gaining this species of settlement with the parish in which the servant works, and yet makes the settlement depend upon the place where he sleeps. The reason seems to be, that the latter is where he inhabits; and inhabitancy, both in former statutes, and in 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12. is made the criterion of settlement. To such a nicety has this

this rule been carried, that where a house stood in two parishes, and the master lay in parish A, where all the service was done, but the servant slept in parish B, the settlement was gained in B. Neither is the master's knowledge or consent to the servant's sleeping away from his house material. If the servant marry during service, and sleep with his wife in another parish, unknown to his master, he is settled there. And whether he sleeps there for successive nights, or at intervals, his settlement is in the parish where he lodges the last night, if he has slept there forty in all. Upon the same principle, if he should sleep the last night in a parish where he had first served under his contract of hiring, and has resided there forty days during the entire service, he is settled there.

The servant's situation and condition during residence, is in most cases immaterial. It is of no importance whether he dwell on land or water; or for what purpose the master comes into the parish, whether for a permanent residence, or a temporary sojournment. Thus, if the servant spend the last forty days of his service at a watering-place, where his master went for the purpose of bathing, or at any other public place, where he is a temporary resident, sojourner, or visitor, he gains a settlement by inhabiting there. Neither does it make any difference that the master has neither settlement, nor real property in the parish where his servant resides, and does not live there. The only distinction taken on the subject is, that if a servant live apart from his master from disease and disability, he shall not be settled in the parish in which he dwells during illness, but in that where he resided for the last forty days of his effective service.

SETTLEMENT BY APPRENTICESHIP. Nothing more was required to settle an apprentice, by 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12. than a residence of forty days. The 3 Will. & Mar. c. 11. exempts him from the necessity created by different statutes, that he should give notice of his inhabitancy. It enacts, that "If any person shall be bound an apprentice by indenture, and inhabit in any town or parish, such binding and inhabitation shall be adjudged a good settlement, though no such notice in writing be delivered and published." An apprentice is not encumbered, like an hired servant, with the condition, that he shall be unmarried, and without unemancipated children when he makes the contract. It is sufficient if he is *bound* as an apprentice, and inhabits the town or parish in that capacity. But as he is enabled to acquire a settlement by these means, he is fettered from

gaining one in a capacity which is inconsistent with the relation he has covenanted to stand in toward his master. He is not capable of contracting the relation of servant (or apprentice) to any other master, until the end of the term for which he was bound. But the master and apprentice may put an end to the apprenticeship by mutual consent, and then the latter may gain a settlement by hiring and service (or under a new indenture of apprenticeship) with any other master.

These rules depend upon the incapacity to make a new contract while the indentures continue, and respect an apprentice regularly and effectively bound. But although the parties intend a contract of apprenticeship, it will not enure as such, if defective in substance or in form; and where a contract clearly appears to be intended as a contract of apprenticeship, and not as one of hiring and service as a servant, it shall not, if defective as a contract of apprenticeship, be converted into a contract of hiring and service, so as to gain the party a settlement as a servant.

Apprentices are bound, 1st, By voluntary consent, without the intervention of parish officers. 2d. By virtue of the power given to parish officers by 43 Eliz. c. 2. in which case they are called parish apprentices. The 3 Will. & Mar. c. 11. s. 5. requires, in conformity to 5 Eliz. c. 4., that the binding shall be by indentures, i. e. by deed *indented*. But this unimportant requisite is rendered unnecessary by 31 Geo. II. c. 11., which makes any deed, though not indented, equally valid for this purpose. The settlement is not however prevented by the master's neglect to execute, provided the apprentice is bound; whether a parish or a voluntary apprentice. So likewise, if an infant is not bound for that time which the statute directs him to be, it does not affect the settlement; for it only renders the indentures voidable at the party's election.

The parish officers must be parties to the parish indentures, which require the assent of two justices, or the binding is void. But the assent of the justices is only necessary when the minor is put out by the parish. Indentures of apprenticeship must be properly stamped. These, where the apprentice is bound out by the parish, pay a duty of sixpence; others according to the amount of the apprentice-fee.

It is also to be observed that a settlement may be gained as an hired servant, although the object of the agreement and service be to learn a trade. As the parties may lawfully enter into their engagement, the particular nature of the

agreement is to be collected from their intention at the time of making it.

The Court of King's Bench has no authority to direct that an apprentice shall be discharged from his indentures, but a deed of apprenticeship may be discharged in four ways, besides natural efflux of time.

By application of either party to two justices of peace, or to the court of quarter sessions, according to the powers given by the 5 Eliz. c. 4., and 20 Geo. II. c. 19. An order of discharge may be made upon the application of either party; "for an apprentice may be discharged from a bad master, and a bad apprentice from his master." But the sessions cannot discharge without shewing some cause, which must be set forth in their order. And a power of ordering restitution of money given with the apprentice may be exercised upon discharging him, as incident to the jurisdiction.

Apprenticeship being a personal trust between the master and servant, is determinable by the death of either. But indentures are not cancelled by the master's failure in his business and running away.

Persons who have been bound to serve beyond the age of twenty-one, may elect to vacate their indentures upon attaining that age, unless bound to serve beyond it under the authority of an act of parliament. But the apprentice must regularly declare his intention to do so.

The most usual way of discharging indentures is by mutual consent. If the apprentice is an infant, his master cannot discharge them by his consent alone. But it may be done with his father's, or any person having the legal superintendence of his minority. In the case of a parish apprentice under age, the indenture cannot be discharged by his consent, though his father concur. As he is bound out by the parish officers under a special authority, they ought to be consulted, and give their consent to his discharge, otherwise the whole policy of the 43 Eliz. might be defeated. But such assent is unnecessary after he attains the age of twenty-one; at which time the master and apprentice may cancel the indentures by mutual agreement. Yet if an attempt be made to cancel them before that time, it is not rendered valid merely by the apprentice's coming of age, but the indentures continue in force, unless the parties enter into a new agreement. In order to discharge indentures, it is necessary, not only that the parties should agree to separate, but that the indentures should be actually cancelled, or given up; or at least, something done which the law

law considers equivalent, such as paying and receiving a sum of money for which a receipt is given, expressing the consideration. But unless the indentures are actually cancelled or given up, or the master agrees unconditionally to do so for a valuable consideration, they must be considered as continuing to subsist. And a mere agreement, without valuable consideration, to discharge the apprentice from the obligation of serving his master, does not put an end to the indentures.

To gain a settlement by an apprentice, the performance of actual service is not the thing material: it is the residence, the inhabitancy of an apprentice in a town or parish for forty days. But although the extent of the service may be immaterial, the apprentice gains no settlement, unless he continues under the controul of his indentures during such residence, liable, not only in law but in fact, to perform the duties prescribed by his covenants. Service under indentures may be either, 1. with the original master; 2. with another person by his consent: but to gain a settlement by service with a third person, 1st, the consent must be direct and explicit; 2d. to serve a particular person; or 3d. if more general, it must be for the immediate benefit of the master; 4th. it must be given by the master under a conviction, that the indentures are still in force.

A servant cannot gain a settlement until his year of service is complete. It floats undetermined until that expires, and he is then settled in that parish or town wherein he has served the last forty days, capable of conferring a settlement. But forty days' residence and service, under indentures, confer an absolute settlement, which no subsequent disqualification by certificate, or otherwise, can defeat. If the apprentice reside so long in one parish, although the indentures are cancelled on the forty-first day after their execution, he has acquired a settlement. It is rightly observed by Dr. Burn, therefore, "that an apprentice may gain as many settlements as there are spaces of forty days in the term of his apprenticeship." This is the principal distinction between residence as a servant and as an apprentice. The settlement of an apprentice, like that of a servant, is where he has last resided forty complete days. He is settled, finally, therefore, where he sleeps the last night in his condition of an apprentice, provided he has resided there forty days altogether.

SETTLEMENT BY SERVING AN OFFICE. This species of settlement depends upon 3 & 4 W. III. c. 11. s. 6., which enacts, "that if any person, who shall come to inhabit in

any town or parish, shall, for himself, or on his own account, execute any public annual office or charge in the said town or parish, during one whole year, then he shall be adjudged and deemed to have a legal settlement in the same, though no such notice in writing be delivered and published, as is hereby before required." Persons who reside under a certificate, may acquire a settlement by 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11., if they "shall execute some annual office in such parish, being *legally placed* in such office."

The office which is to confer a settlement under these statutes must be public, but need not be parochial. Not only those of parish clerk, sexton, and churchwarden, but also a warden for the borough, a tithing-man, petty constable or borsholder, collector of the land tax, and duties on births and burials, created by 6 & 7 W. III. c. 6., are officers within the act. Likewise the office of bailiff, or ale-taster for a borough; where it consisted in inspecting weights and measures within the borough, and warning the jury to serve at the court leet there; that of ale-taster of a borough; and a hog-ringer *for the parish*; the duty being to attend the open commons, to see that *all* hogs turned thereupon are rung, and to impound such as are not, the officer receiving one penny for impounding, and sixpence for ringing each hog, being an office of great antiquity, and serviceable to the inhabitants of the parish, have been adjudged to confer settlements when duly executed.

But a person nominated by the rector, and licensed to perform the office of curate in the parish and parish church by the bishop, who assigned him a yearly stipend, although he performed the duties six years, was held not to have served an annual public office or charge under the act. So the master of a workhouse where nothing was said, either at the time of his appointment or afterwards, as for the time which he was to hold his situation, but he conceived he might at any time be dismissed at a quarter's notice. But where the session stated in their case that the pauper was legally appointed governor of the workhouse in the parish, at an annual salary, and that the said office of governor is a public annual office; the court were of opinion, that the facts stated precluded discussion how far it was in the act, the sessions having found that the pauper served a public annual office in the parish to which he was legally appointed. The office or charge must be a public institution. The exercise of a private employment confers no settlement, although ever so notorious in the parish.

As it is unnecessary that the office should be of a parochial nature, it is equally so that the appointment should be in the parishioners. Thus, the collector of duties on births and burials appointed by the crown; a constable put in by the leet; a tithing-man by the steward of a leet, or by the jurors; the clerk of the parish appointed by the parson; a sexton elected at a vestry by the proprietors of seats in the church or chapel, have been held to acquire settlements by serving these offices. The office must be annual; that is, the person appointed into it must be liable to execute the duties for a year at least. But it is not necessary that the office should be strictly annual, i. e. limited in duration to a year. Freehold offices for life, as of sexton, or parish clerk, are public annual offices within the act.

The office must exist within the parish where the party resides (but it may extend beyond it). Thus, a constable of a city, consisting of several parishes, the duties of the office being to be executed through all parts of the city, gains a settlement in the parish where he resides. The warden of a borough, exercising the office in the parish where he claimed a settlement, and in some others, gains a settlement. And the office need not extend over the whole parish. Thus, a tithing-man, whose tithing did not extend over the entire parish, but comprehended the part wherein he resided. The bailiff, or ale-taster of a borough, which borough was not one fifth or sixth part of the parish, acquired settlements.

The service must be for one whole year, and it seems as if there must be a residence of forty days at least in the parish in which the office is executed and the settlement claimed.

SETTLEMENT ON A TENEMENT OF TEN POUNDS A YEAR. This kind of settlement depends upon 13 & 14 Car. II., which confines the power of removal to cases where persons "come to settle in any tenement under the yearly value of ten pounds." The act speaks of the annual value, without mention of the inhabitant's estate or interest, and at first view seems to require that all tenements which give a settlement should be of the yearly value of ten pounds, without reference to the nature or manner of acquiring the estate, whether freehold, copyhold, leasehold, or a minor interest. The judges entertained originally some doubt, whether this was not the true construction. It has however been long settled, that where the inhabitant has a freehold or copyhold interest, the yearly value of the tenement is immaterial. And it is so, likewise, where a lease-

hold interest devolves upon the party by operation of law. The rule extends to leaseholds purchased for valuable consideration. For before 9 Geo. I. c. 7. every body that came into a parish, and made *any purchase whatever*, was irremovable.

There are two kinds of estates, therefore, in which the annual value of the tenement is immaterial. 1st, Freehold or copyhold. 2d. Leasehold interests, "which devolve upon the party by operation of law," or are acquired by purchase.

The present species of settlement arises from the possession of a tenement of the annual value of 10*l.*, when obtained by some other than the preceding means. It is generally considered as acquired by *renting* a tenement of the yearly value of 10*l.*, not only because the occupation is usually under a contract to pay rent, and the credit given to the tenant, and his ability to pay 10*l.* per annum, have been deemed reasons for this exception in the statute, and the ground of the settlement: but also perhaps from the 9 & 10 W. III. c. 30. having made the taking the lease of a tenement of that value necessary towards obtaining a settlement by a person residing under a certificate. But lawful possession of a tenement, of sufficient value, confers a settlement, although the occupier is exempt from paying rent. It seems therefore to include cases of voluntary donation, or permissive possession, where the occupier has no interest of sufficient permanency to entitle him to acquire a settlement by estate.

The general definition of the word tenement is of great extent, comprising every thing which may be *holden*, provided it be of a permanent nature; whether it be of a substantial and sensible, or of an unsubstantial, ideal kind; but in the construction of the poor laws it has received many explanations and restrictions, too minute to be introduced here. As to how far the settlement is affected by the local situation of the tenement, with reference to the parish in which the settlement is sought, or whether two or more, when occupied together, come within the meaning of a tenement under 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12., it is decided that an entire tenement of the annual value of 10*l.* and upwards, situated in different parishes, will confer a settlement where the occupier resides, although he has not the value of 10*l.* a-year in either, or less than 10*l.* in the place of residence, and considerably more in the adjoining parish. A person may likewise occupy, at the same time, two or more tenements, situate in the same, or in different parishes, and distinct

distinct tenements, when of sufficient conjunct value, are within the statute, and whether situated in the same, or in different parishes, or taken at different times, and of different landlords, or held by distinct titles, as by renting part, and holding part in right of a wife, they give a settlement. Also it makes no difference, if the tenements are of distinct kinds, as a house, a meadow, and a cattle gate, a messuage, and the aftermath of a meadow. No more is necessary, but that the party should be a lawful occupier to the yearly value of 10*l.*, during a residence of 40 days.

The settlement depends upon the tenements being of the annual *value* of 10*l.*, and not upon the amount of the rent, where rent is paid. "If a man hire a house at a small rent, and pay a fine, yet, if the house be worth 10*l.* per annum, it makes a settlement." But rent is the fair criterion of value, unless the tenement is shewn to be worth more or less; and the annual value is alone material. If it be worth 10*l.* a year, and a tenant occupy five months, paying 4*l.*, he gains a settlement. And the value may be calculated without deducting parish rates and charges. Neither is the worth at the time when the tenant enters material, provided it becomes sufficient during any year of his occupation. But it must be actually worth 10*l.*; a mere speculative or potential value does not satisfy the statute; and nothing is to be considered but the worth of the tenement itself, without reference to that of any personal chattels upon it. The value of stock on a tenement is not material. But it is otherwise where the value of the land is raised by the amount of things erected thereon, or which are so connected with the land, as to fall (in legal contemplation,) within the description of a tenement.

Where a tenement is taken, or occupied jointly by two, and is of the value of 20*l.* a year, both may gain a settlement, for the moiety occupied by each is of the value of 10*l.* per annum. But where a tenement is occupied by two jointly, and is under 20*l.* a-year in value, neither can acquire one; and this not only where the tenants, after taking the farm jointly, pay their rents severally, divide the produce of the land between them, and stint their pastures equally, by their several flocks; but also, where they jointly hire and occupy the house and land, and jointly till and sow it, and jointly pay their rent.

Where a settlement is claimed by a tenement of 10*l.* per annum value, nothing further is required, as to the occupation, than that the party hold possession as tenant by lawful means. The sessions have no occasion to go into the title

of the lessor at all, nor into the conditions upon which the person occupies. And as it is immaterial whether the occupier pay rent, it must of course be so, where he agrees to pay for his occupation in kind; as by the dung of his cattle; or by service instead of rent; as by keeping three highway gates in repair; by holding a house and ground in consequence of his being appointed, and serving as herd to several persons having a right of common on a large extensive common or waste. It is also immaterial whether the payment of the rent is guaranteed to the landlord by some other person, or whether credit is only given to the tenant for part of the rent, or whether he is rated for the premises, or whether at the time he commences the occupation, he is receiving parish relief from some other parish, if done without fraud. So likewise it is immaterial, that having contracted to pay rent, he is unable to pay it. The use also, and time for which the tenement is taken are unimportant, provided there is an occupation of forty days. Taking land from Candlemas to Michaelmas, for growing potatoes, or from June to Ladyday following, or a room by the week, is sufficient. And it seems to make no difference, that the party takes it for the purpose of gaining a settlement, if done without fraud.

If a man continue tenant, it is immaterial whether he have stock sufficient for the premises when he enters thereon, if there is no fraud; and it is equally so, although he keeps neither stock nor effects upon them. He need not occupy them himself, and if he let the possession to another, it will not prevent his settlement.

In order to gain a settlement by occupying a tenement of 10*l.* per annum, there must be a residence of forty days, either on the premises, or at least in the parish where some part of them lies. But it is enough if he dwell where part of the tenement lies; he need not reside upon any part of what he takes. The party must stand in the relation of tenant to the property during the forty days' residence. A wife therefore cannot acquire a settlement by residence in her husband's lifetime, on a tenement taken by him; neither can her residence, as such, be coupled with subsequent residence as a widow. Residence must be in the parish in which the tenement lies. But if the party has a tenement, or tenements of sufficient value, situated in different parishes, and has resided in both, he is settled where he slept the last night of his occupation, provided he has slept there forty nights in all. And it makes no difference that the tenement in that parish is of the lesser value, or only an occasional residence

fidence taken for a particular purpose, and that the party's regular home, and the residence of his family, is in the other parish.

SETTLEMENT BY ESTATE. An estate is defined by Sir William Blackstone to signify such interest as the tenant has in lands, tenements, or hereditaments. The nature of the thing, or property, out of which the interest which is to confer a settlement must arise, does not seem to have been expressly defined. The reported cases generally respect settlements by estate in land, and it is no where directly considered, whether a settlement can be acquired by an estate in a tenement, as that word has been explained under 13 & 14 Car. II., or in the more extensive denomination of property, called an hereditament. The principle upon which these settlements are founded, viz. that the party shall not be removed from his own, but is entitled to the care of his property, goes beyond estates in land, and seems to extend this right to all interests in things immoveable, situate within a town or parish, which, as the party cannot take with him to the place of his settlement, he must be allowed to remain where they are, for the purpose of superintending them. But the interest must issue out of the realty locally situated in the parish where the settlement is sought.

An estate or interest in things real is affected by various qualities and circumstances. As 1st, The nature of the tenure. But this does not affect a settlement. It may be acquired by an estate in lands, held in frank tenure, or by copyhold. 2d. The duration of the estate, which seems likewise immaterial, if it is sufficient to ensure a residence of forty days. It may be either a freehold estate in fee, or for life, or a copyhold in fee, or for life, or a leasehold interest determinable on lives, or years. Even a tenancy from year to year, when acquired by proper means, as also the right which the widow has under Magna Charta, c. 7., to continue forty days upon her husband's land until her dower is assigned, are interests sufficiently permanent to confer a settlement. But the interest must be of sufficient permanency to render the party irremovable during his forty days of residence. A tenant at will cannot acquire a settlement as such, unless his tenement is of the annual value of 10*l.*, when it ranks under a different species of settlement.

The great principle upon which this species of settlement is founded is, that a person cannot be removed from *his own*. The chief question therefore in this part of the law of settlement,

ment, respects the means by which property becomes a man's own, or, in other words, his title to the estate.

The methods of acquiring property are usually divided into two kinds.

1. By descent, or hereditary succession, which is the title whereby a man on the death of his ancestor acquires his estate by right of representation as his heir at law.

2. By purchase, which, taken in its largest and most extensive sense, is thus defined by Littleton: the possession of lands and tenements which a man hath by his own act or agreement, and not by descent from any of his ancestors or kindred. In this sense it is contradistinguished from acquisition by right of blood, and includes every other method of coming to an estate, except by inheritance.

But this distinction is scarcely of further use in the law of settlement, than to distinguish between the legal import of the word *purchase*, and that more limited sense in which it is used in the 9 Geo. I. c. 7. s. 5.

An estate to which the party is entitled by descent, will always confer a settlement, without regard either to the annual or total value of the interest.

An estate acquired by purchase also confers a settlement, except in certain cases. Where the settlement is claimed by estate, the annual value of the property is immaterial, but the price given for the interest is rendered important by 9 Geo. I. c. 7. s. 5., which enacts, "that no person shall acquire any settlement, by virtue of any purchase of an estate or interest when the consideration for the purchase doth not amount to thirty pounds, *bonâ fide* paid, for any longer or further time than such person or persons shall inhabit in such estate, and shall then be liable to be removed to his last legal settlement, before the said purchase or inhabitancy therein."

This statute, however, does not extend to conveyances purely voluntary. Neither does it make any difference that the estate is conveyed from natural love and affection by the wife's father to the husband. So also, if the consideration is of a mixed nature, being partly for a sum of money (inadequate to the worth of the estate) and partly for natural love and affection, it is not a pecuniary purchase within the act. But if a monied consideration, although ever so small, is the sole foundation of the grant, it is to be considered as a purchase within the statute, and not as a voluntary gift.

An interest acquired by devise confers a settlement. So also an executor who is possessed of an estate from year to year

year under a will, gains a settlement by entry and residence, although he has not proved the will. So also a sufficient estate is gained in a term of years, by taking out letters of administration. Also a husband may acquire a settlement by possession of an estate, which comes to him by marriage in right of his wife; but if the estate was originally purchased by the husband for less than thirty pounds, and settled after marriage in trust to the wife's separate use, he cannot gain a settlement by reason of the equitable estate vested in his wife. And if husband and wife are joint purchasers of an estate for a less sum than thirty pounds, the survivor is a purchaser within 9 Geo. I. c. 7., and does not acquire a settlement. An undisturbed possession for twenty years is in itself sufficient to acquire a settlement, and the mode how the occupier came into possession is not material, whether by right or by wrong. And it seems that the court does not require that strict statutory title by adverse possession of twenty years, which is necessary in questions of title in ejectment. But they will presume a conveyance to legalize the possession in cases of long and uninterrupted enjoyment, unless the contrary appears. A settlement may also be gained by the possession of an equitable interest, subject to the same rules as a legal estate. And if the object be merely to secure money, it is in substance the same thing, whether the conveyance be in the form of an absolute disposition in trust, or of a mortgage. It is likewise immaterial whether the party has a beneficial interest in the estate or not: a mere trustee may acquire a settlement, for nobody can take the estate from him, and it is sufficient that he reside in the parish forty days, and cannot be removed from it. As to the number and connexion of the tenants, it forms no consideration in the question of settlement; they may be tenants in coparcenary, joint-tenants, or tenants in common. A tenant in common of an estate of inheritance, may acquire a settlement; as also one of three coparceners by residence in the parish; and as their interest is equal, it seems they may all gain settlements. One of four executors was settled by residence in the parish where the premises were situated, out of which their interest accrued. So also the owner of a leasehold interest acquired a settlement, although the grantor reserved a sleeping place, or although the grantee demised all the premises to another, excepting a fourth part. Neither does it make any difference, if there is no fraud, that the pauper receives relief from another parish during his residence.

No one can be removed from the place in which their freehold is situated within the first forty days of residence. But, if he quits it voluntarily, and becomes indigent, he cannot be removed thither unless he has resided forty days. The mere circumstance of being irremovable from a place is no criterion of a settlement there. In many situations beside that already stated, persons cannot be removed, although they have not acquired settlements. The true criterion of settlement in any district maintaining its own poor is, whether the party be removeable thither on the ground of wanting parochial relief. This depends, in all cases of acquired settlements, that is, where residence is necessary, "upon the statute of 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 12., which directs the sending a pauper to the place where he was last legally settled for the space of forty days." In order therefore to acquire a settlement by estate, the party must reside forty days in the parish in which his estate lies, and while his interest continues. But the days need not be successive; it is enough if he reside forty in the whole. And it makes no difference whether he reside on his own estate, or at another person's, or in an ale-house.

SETTLEMENT BY PAYMENT OF PUBLIC TAXES. This species of settlement depends upon 3 W. III. c. 11. s. 6., which enacts, that if any person who shall come to inhabit in any town or parish shall be charged, and pay his share towards the public taxes or levies of the said town or parish, then he shall be adjudged and deemed to have a legal settlement. This mode of settlement was frequently resorted to, until the statute 35 Geo. III. c. 101. enacted, "that no person or persons whatsoever, who should come into any parish, township, or place, should gain a settlement by paying his share towards the public taxes or levies, in respect of any tenement not being of the yearly value of 10*l*." After this act therefore, the assessment became immaterial, since the occupation would confer a settlement on the tenant, whether rated or not.

SETTLEMENT BY ACKNOWLEDGMENT. A parish or town, having the management of its own poor, may confer one by acknowledging that a particular person has acquired a settlement there, which in most cases estops them from controverting the fact, either as to the party himself, or those who claim settlement through him. But this acknowledgment must, to affect the parish, be made by certain prescribed modes; for the parish officers have no power to settle a person in their parish by other acts or declarations.

No

No person gains a settlement in a parish by having acted as parishioner, and been treated as such in every other respect, beside being rated or receiving parish relief. A parish may acknowledge a pauper to be settled with them in three ways. 1st, By relief. 2d. By certificate. 3d. By neglecting to appeal against an order of removal.

1. The bare fact of a pauper's having been relieved in a particular instance, is no proof of his being settled where he was relieved. He might be relieved as casual poor; and if in want of relief while in the parish, the parish officers were bound to give it, whether settled there or elsewhere. But where a parish relieves under circumstances which exclude the supposition of its being given to the party as casual poor, it is evidence that he is settled there.

2. A certificate is a most solemn acknowledgment by the parish who gave it, that the parties who are the subject of it are their legally settled inhabitants; it is a sort of adjudication that they are so; and when the persons certificated, or their children, become actually chargeable, the parish, who gave the certificate, is bound to receive them. It concludes the parish which gave it from controverting any fact which is there set forth, as against the parish to whom it is given. The parish cannot therefore dispute the marriage of persons whom it has thereby acknowledged to be man and wife. It may also bind a parish to admit the legitimacy of a spurious child, born previously.

3. The effect of an acknowledgment, by acquiescence under an order of removal, is more extensive than those already mentioned. An acknowledgment, by relief, is no more than *prima facie* evidence of settlement in all cases. If by certificate, it is conclusive against the parish which grants it, in questions between it and the parish to which it is delivered. But an order of removal unappealed from, is conclusive on the parish upon which the order is made against all the world.

An order, to be conclusive, must be *bonâ fide* obtained and prosecuted. If a parish obtain an order of removal, and then abandon it, consenting to take the order back, without giving the parish to which it is directed the trouble of appealing, it concludes nothing. A party may give up a judgment intended for his own benefit. But to be thus final and conclusive, it must not be *ex facie* null. It must appear on the face of the order, therefore, to be made by two justices having a competent jurisdiction. But it seems that it is not permitted to the parish, against whom it operates,

rates, to shew it void by circumstances, *debors* the instrument itself, for they must, in such a case, appeal in the regular course of proceedings, or they are concluded by it. It must also be made to a place to which a removal can be made, and which has officers who may watch over its interests, and appeal against such orders as affect them without due foundation.

BY WHOM A SETTLEMENT MAY BE ACQUIRED. A wife cannot acquire a settlement by any act of her own, during her husband's life time. But she may retain her maiden settlement under particular circumstances. It is said, that a child cannot acquire a settlement while under the age of seven years. But with these exceptions a settlement may be acquired by all the natural subjects of the king, born in any part of his dominions annexed to the crown of England. A prisoner in custody of the warden of the Fleet was held to acquire a settlement, by renting and residing upon a tenement of the annual value of 10*l.*, situate within the rules of that prison.

A subject of any country at peace with the crown of England, or, as he is called in law language, an *alien enemy*, may likewise acquire a settlement by occupying a tenement of the value of 10*l.* a-year. But it seems as if he could not gain one by estate, except in a few partial instances, because he cannot acquire a permanent interest in things immoveable, situated within the realm.

By 35 Geo. III. c. 101. s. 4., no act done by any poor person continuing to reside in any parish, township, or place under the suspension of an order for their removal, or of a vagrant pass for passing them, shall be effectual, either in the whole or in part, for the purpose of giving him or her a settlement in the same.

OF CERTIFICATES. The statutes upon which the law of certificates depend are, 1st, 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 12. s. 1., which relates principally to certificates given to poor and able-bodied persons removing occasionally from their places of inhabiting, to procure work; and is granted by the minister of the parish, one churchwarden and one overseer. 2d. 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30., 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11., 12 Anne, c. 18. s. 2., and 3 Geo. II. c. 29. s. 8 & 9. The object of 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30. was to enable the poor to remove with facility from their places of settlement, and become inhabitants of other parishes, that they might gain a livelihood without being a burthen there. It makes those who reside under certificates irremoveable, until actually chargeable, and, in return, prohibits them from acquiring settlements while they

they dwell under its protection, “ unless they really and *bonâ fide* take a lease of a tenement of the value of 10*l.*, or execute some annual office in such parish, being legally placed in such office.”

But the statute applied only to persons mentioned in the certificate, and those who could claim settlements from them as natural parts of their family. The 12 Anne, c. 18. §. 2., passed therefore to prohibit apprentices and servants of certificated persons from acquiring settlements as such.

The general principle of this law is, that the certificate's protection, and party's inability to acquire a settlement, are co-extensive. As it obliges a parish to receive a person to whom the certificate is granted, together with his family, it holds out in return an indemnity to the parish receiving them, that neither he nor any of *his family* that then is, or thereafter shall be, shall, while they continue such, bring any burthen upon it.

Those who reside under a certificate therefore cannot acquire settlements, except by the methods prescribed in the 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11. But if unprotected by it, they may do so in the same manner as any other person. For wherever a certificate is not conclusive upon the parish granting it to receive the party back again, it does not prevent him from acquiring a settlement there.

The churchwardens and overseers of a parish may grant certificates, not only to able-bodied persons to enable them to acquire a livelihood, but likewise to the poor and impotent for particular purposes; as to protect them during residence in their workhouse erected in another parish, for maintenance; or in an hospital for cure. They cannot be compelled to grant one in any case. But when granted, the following forms are required by statute.

By 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30., 1st, It must be under the hands and seals of the major part of the churchwardens, or under those of overseers, if there are none. 2^d. It must be attested by two or more credible witnesses. 3^d. It must be allowed of, and subscribed by two or more justices, within whose jurisdiction the parish or place which grants it lies. 3 Geo. II. c. 29. §. 8., was made to facilitate the mode of proving certificates, and requires, in addition, 4th. That the witnesses, or one of them, who attest the execution of the certificate, shall make oath before the justices who are to allow it, that he or they saw those parish officers, whose names and seals are affixed, severally sign and seal it. 5th. The justices are also to certify that such oath was made before them; and every certificate so allowed, and the oath of the
execution

execution so certified, shall be taken and allowed in all courts as fully proved, and shall be received in evidence, without further proof.

A certificate is not a transferable instrument from one parish to another. But it need not be directed to any particular parish, for it takes effect only by delivery, and a mistake in the direction does not vitiate it. The 8 & 9 W. III. requires, that it be delivered to the parish officers of the certificated parish, in order to prevent the party's removal from thence, or his acquiring a settlement there.

A certificate extends to three classes of persons: 1st, Those actually named in it; 2d. Those who are part of the person's family at the time it is granted; 3d. Those who become so while he continues to reside under it. It extends therefore to all who are mentioned expressly, although they afterward live away from their parent, and form the head of another family. But unless where a person is thus described, it only includes such as live under the same roof with the *pater familias*, form his fire-side, or, in other words, constitute a part of his family or household. It extends therefore to all his children, whether born before or after the certificate is granted; to those by a second wife, taken while the pauper resides under the certificate, after the death of a first, who had removed into the parish and resided with him under it, as also to the second wife herself, married under such circumstances. But as it is competent to the parties to limit the extent of a certificate, it may be framed so as to exclude, as well as to include, a person who would otherwise be considered as protected by it. The law respecting certificates is extended by 12 Anne, c. 18. s. 2. to apprentices and servants whose masters reside under them.

Persons who reside under a certificate cannot be removed until actually chargeable, although the certificate departs from the usual form, and promises to receive "the paupers and his family, when they shall be thereto requested;" for it must be taken to mean, when they shall be legally requested upon the party's becoming chargeable. And if the certificate is destroyed by casualty, and the parish refuse to grant a new one, it does not render him previously removeable. So also, as the certificate does not protect a person in his residence in a third parish, it cannot prevent him from acquiring a settlement there. Thus, a son born in the certificated parish, acquires a settlement either by hiring and service, or by apprenticeship in a third.

A cer-

A certificate may be discharged altogether as to the entire family, or continued as to part, and determined as to the remainder. This may be effected in various ways.

1st, By a removal of the pauper by the certificated parish, to that which granted the certificate, or by a third parish, either removing him thither, or to that to which the certificate was given, if there is no appeal against the order.

2d, By granting a new certificate to another parish.

3d, By the pauper's voluntarily deserting the certificate, by removing from the parish to which it was granted, and taking up his residence either in the certifying parish, or elsewhere, without an intention to return thither.

4th, By the party's gaining a settlement in another parish, although it is consolidated for the maintenance of the poor with the certificated parish.

5th, By acquiring a settlement in the parish to which it is granted. Whether by serving an office or renting a tenement of 10l. a-year; or by residence on a freehold, or leasehold interest, obtained by purchase or descent, or a copyhold surrendered to a wife by her father, or devised to her by will, or by the widow's quarantine.

6th, A certificate continues as to any person who is expressly named therein, until discharged by some act immediately affecting himself; for he is to be considered in the same situation as if the parish had granted a distinct certificate to him, and consequently his family reside under it, and are affected by it.

7th, It is discharged as to those who reside under the general description of part of the family, by their ceasing to be so from becoming emancipated.

But a certificate is not determined in all cases as to those who have resided as members of the family, by the death of the person to whom it was originally granted. A man and his wife came into a parish under a certificate; the woman dying, the husband married again, and the second wife was held to reside under its protection after her husband's death.

If a certificate is discharged by any of these means, all who reside under it, whether as natural parts of the family, as apprentices, or as servants, are restored to their capacity of acquiring settlements in the parish as if it had never existed.

OF REMOVING THE POOR. The modes of removal are three: 1st, by order of removal, under 13 & 14 Car. II. chap. 12. to the place of their last legal settlement; 2d, the

removal of vagrants by a pass; 3d, a power vested in the justices to remove in some particular cases, not specifically given by statute.

The 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12. enabled parish officers to remove all persons not settled in the parish, and *likely to become chargeable* there, to the place of their last legal settlement. The policy and humanity of the legislature introduced several subsequent exceptions to this general law, by rendering persons irremovable until they became an actual charge to their place of residence; except, 1st, persons convicted of larceny or other felony; 2d, rogues, vagabonds, idle or disorderly persons, and such as should appear upon the oath of one or more credible witnesses to be persons of evil fame, or reputed thieves, and not able to give a satisfactory account of themselves and their way of living; 3d, unmarried women with child, who are taken, and deemed to be actually chargeable.

The statute last alluded to, (35 Geo. III. c. 101.) was designed to give a more general effect to those provisions in 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11. which enabled poor persons to quit their places of settlement for the purpose of a livelihood, and, at the same time, to remove the inconveniences which arose from granting certificates. The decisions, therefore, upon the act of William, must be considered as applicable to the 35 Geo. III. c. 101. being made *in pari materia*.

1st, It has been determined upon the certificate act, that none but those who are become actually chargeable to the parish can be removed from it.

2d, The party must become an actual charge and burthen to the parish, by receiving relief out of the poor's fund. The asking relief from a parish officer, without receiving it, does not render him chargeable. Neither does the actual receipt of relief from an inhabitant, who is not an officer.

The clause respecting unmarried women who are pregnant, extends to those who reside under a certificate, but it does not make persons removeable who are not proper objects of removal before that act. Thus a single woman who is pregnant, and a person of substance, cannot be removed. It was held therefore that a single woman who was with child, and lived in service, could not be removed against her own and her master's consent, as one actually chargeable under this act. For the mere circumstances of a single woman's being with child, did not before the act operate as a dissolution of the contract, and make her liable to be removed against the consent both of the master and servant.

But

But although the party may be chargeable, and in that respect liable to removal, other impediments may exist to prevent the removal of those who apply for parish relief. They are of two kinds: 1st, Where the removal would interfere with some relationship in which the pauper stands towards a third person, and which the law will not suffer to be interrupted without such person's consent. 2d, Where the justices have no jurisdiction.

The connections which prevent removals are: 1st, husband and wife; 2d, children within the age of nurture; 3d, a master and his apprentice or servant.

If a married woman intrudes into a parish, apart from her husband, she may be removed to the place of his settlement, if he has one; and if he have none, she may be sent to her maiden settlement.

But no order can separate husband and wife against their consent. Where a wife stands in need of parish relief, the husband becomes chargeable from his inability to maintain her, whom the law calls upon him to support. If he reside with her, and has a settlement, they shall be removed thither; or if the woman is removed alone, and the husband is living, he may be sent afterwards to his family. But if the husband is a foreigner, and have no settlement, the wife cannot be removed without his consent, although she asks a temporary relief, because the husband has no settlement to which he can be sent; and he and his wife shall not, against their will, suffer such a temporary divorce from each other.

Yet in such a case, if the husband and wife consent to her removal with her children to her maiden settlement, an order to that effect is valid; because married persons of an inferior condition in life must frequently separate, for the purpose of subsisting by their labour: there is neither public nor private injury in their doing so.

2d, Upon the same principle, children cannot be removed from their parents, whether legitimate or otherwise.

The remaining connection, which the law does not suffer to be broken, is that of a master and servant, or apprentice, for they stand upon a similar footing: these contracts cannot be dissolved, or the parties separated against their consent. But if the master is unable to maintain them, it is, perhaps a sufficient ground to deem him chargeable, and to remove him as such. But if a servant be well settled in the parish, and the master is removable, it is said that the former cannot be removed with him, under 43 Eliz.

The second case in which magistrates are unable to remove, arises from a deficiency of jurisdiction. 1st, Persons residing upon their own estate, howsoever acquired, or whatever the value, though actually chargeable. 2d, A man's wife and family, resident upon his or her estate, or upon a tenement of the value of 10*l.* per annum, notwithstanding the husband dwells elsewhere, cannot be removed. For although the wife cannot acquire a settlement during his life, yet not only the husband, but his wife and family, are irremovable in such a situation, because they do not come to settle in a tenement under the yearly value of 10*l.* 3d, Persons born in extra-parochial places, for which no overseers are appointed, cannot be sent thither as to their place of settlement; nor can the poor who reside there be removed; for neither the 43 Eliz. nor 13 or 14 Car. II. extend to these places, or give the justices any jurisdiction over them. But if the place is a vill or township, so as to admit of having overseers, the magistrates should first appoint them, and then make their order. 4th, This rule seems, upon the same principle, to apply to the case of persons born out of England or Wales, and not having gained a legal settlement there.

When a person becomes chargeable to the parish, the officers (for none else can do it) should apply to the magistrates for an order to remove him. The complaint may be laid before a single justice. It is the foundation of the magistrates' jurisdiction, and need not be upon oath. The pauper ought to have notice of this complaint, and be heard (where it can be done) before his removal; for the court will grant an information against magistrates making an order, if they have omitted to summon him through wilful neglect.

The head of the family should be examined when it can be done conveniently, but it is sometimes unnecessary and impossible. As if he be insane, or cannot be found; so an infant of tender years cannot be examined. The next proceeding, after information by the parish officers, is, that the magistrate grant a summons requiring the party to appear before *two* justices; for although the complaint of a pauper's settlement may be to one justice, the examination ought to be by those two who sign the order. If upon service of this summons the pauper refuse to come, a warrant may be granted to bring him before two justices, who are to examine and remove. The justices who make the order, must proceed upon *viva voce* testimony, taken before themselves in each other's presence, by examination upon oath.

If

If the pauper refuses to answer proper questions put to him in the course of his examination, the justices may commit him "until he shall answer." If the justices are satisfied upon the pauper's examination, and such other evidence as is adduced before them, that he has intruded into the parish, and is become chargeable there, being legally settled in some other place, they ought to make an order for his removal thither. An order of removal is usually under hand and seal. It is likewise usual and proper to specify the day upon which the order is signed. But this omission does not vitiate it, unless some damage is proved to result from the neglect. As an order is a judicial act, requiring the magistrates' mutual concurrence, it must be determined upon while they are together, and should be signed by them in each other's presence.

In other respects the order of removal must contain every requisite particularity of form. It must set forth the justices' authority; that the parties, who are sought to be removed, are come to inhabit in the parish or township to which the officers belong, not having gained a legal settlement there; and that they are actually chargeable to the said parish or township; it must also state the examination before two justices; describe the parties to be removed with sufficient certainty; contain proper words of adjudication; and require the officers of the complaining parish to remove the pauper; and those of the place in which the settlement is adjudged to be, to receive and provide for him.

When an order has been thus made and signed, it is the duty of the parish officers, who are directed to remove the paupers, to have them safely conveyed, at the expence of their parish, to the place thereby required to receive and provide for them. If the paupers refuse to remove in obedience to the order, it seems to contain sufficient powers to enable the persons to whom it is directed to convey them by force; but at all events the parish may obtain a warrant, under the hands and seals of the magistrates, to enforce it by compulsory means. The person to whom the duty of removal is entrusted, should safely deliver the poor together with the order to one of the parish officers of the parish directed to receive them. Or if only one original is made, he should give a copy, and shew the original. But if the original is delivered, and a copy kept, that is sufficient. It seems also to be enough to produce the justices' warrant to convey the pauper, inasmuch as the magistrates may retain the original order. If the parish officers refuse to execute or obey an order of this kind, they may be punished by in-

dictment; for the only means by which a parish, thus required to receive a pauper, can get rid of the order, is by appeal to the quarter sessions.

The duplicate original order should be carried by one of the justices who signed it, to the next general or quarter sessions, and retained in the hands of the clerk of the peace, as a conclusive record of the settlement, where the receiving parish neglects to appeal.

Pass warrants only respect persons who are convicted of being in a state of actual vagrancy. No other persons can be sent by a pass, even at their own request; but must be regularly removed by order of two justices.

Magistrates have obtained powers to suspend the execution of orders of removal and vagrant passes by the humane provisions of 35 Geo. III. c. 101. which enacts that in case any poor person shall be brought before any justice for the purpose of being removed, and shall appear unable to travel, by reason of sickness or other infirmity, or that it would be dangerous for him or her so to do, the justice is required and authorized to suspend the execution of the order until satisfied that it may be executed without danger.

Besides the general form of removal to the place of settlement, there may be other removals; as of wives to their husbands, children to their parents, apprentices or servants to their masters; of persons brought illegally from one parish to another. But this is not in pursuance of the statute 13 & 14 Car. II., but of the general power of the justices in regulating matters relating to poor persons. The object of such orders is solely for the party's removal, and they should not contain an order of maintenance, which magistrates have no authority to make under these circumstances.

The statute of Charles II., which enabled two justices to remove persons intruding into parishes, excepted persons going to work in another parish, with a certificate from the minister of the parish, one churchwarden, and one overseer, certifying, that they were inhabitants of that place, and had left part of their family behind. The section proceeds to direct, that they shall return when the work is finished; and that if they do not, or if they fall sick, or become impotent, they shall be removed to the certifying parish, and if they refuse to go, or will not remain in the parish where they ought to be settled, but return to the parish whence they were removed, any justice may commit them to the house of correction as vagabonds, or to a public workhouse in the parish, to be employed in work or labour.

But

But as this act contained no other provision, by which persons coming into parishes without these certificates could be punished in a summary way for returning after removal, this defect was remedied by 17 Geo. II. c. 5., which provides, that all persons who shall *unlawfully* return to a parish or place from whence they have been legally removed, without bringing a certificate, shall be deemed idle and disorderly persons, and a justice may commit them to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding one month.

If a party is illegally committed, his remedies are, 1st, By appeal to the quarter sessions, where he may dispute the legality of the commitment upon its merits, as well as form. 2d, By having the commitment returned into the court of King's Bench, under an *habeas corpus*, where it will be quashed for such defects as appear upon the face of it. 3d, By action brought against the magistrates, who have exceeded their jurisdiction by committing him. 4th, By motion for a criminal information, where they appear to have acted from malice or corrupt motives.

RELIEF. There are certain methods of providing for the poor in ease of the parochial funds, to which the parish officers ought to have recourse in the first instance. 1st, By making certain relations of the impotent poor contribute to maintain them, if of sufficient ability. 2d, By enforcing the maintenance of illegitimate children by their reputed parents. 3d, By putting out apprentices. Where these means are incompetent to the poor's relief, they must apply, 4th, to the general fund raised by the rate.

1st, As to the maintenance by relations. The 43 Eliz. c. 2. enacts, that the father, grandfather, mother and grandmother, and children of impotent poor, being of sufficient ability, shall relieve and maintain them, according to that rate, as "by the justices of the county, where such sufficient person dwells, at their general quarter sessions, shall be assessed." And by the 11 & 12 W. III. c. 4., where popish parents refuse to allow their protestant children a maintenance suited to their degree, in order to compel them to change their religion, the lord chancellor or keeper of the great seal may make an order therein; and 1 Ann. st. 1. c. 30. gives the same power, where protestant children of Jewish parents are in the like situation. On the first statute it has been decided, that it extends only to natural relations, and not to such as are acquired by marriage. A father-in-law, therefore, is under no obligation to maintain his wife's child after the mother's death, nor in her lifetime, although the

husband acquire an estate with her, nor a father his son's wife or widow; neither is a son-in-law bound to maintain his wife's mother. And the obligation extends only to such relations as are particularly enumerated in the statute. An order, therefore, cannot be made upon a man to maintain his wife, much less a bastard child. The penalty in the statute for disobeying the order is twenty shillings a month, but the party may also be indicted for his contumacy. Several statutes have provided remedies against parents who desert, or threaten to desert their families, and particularly the 5 Geo. I. c. 8., which empowers justices to make provision out of the estates of such fugitives, if they have any; the 17 Geo. II. c. 5., (commonly called the vagrant act,) which includes such persons in the descriptions of rogues and vagabonds; and the 32 Geo. III. c. 45., which includes those who bring their families to distress by dissipation and idleness in the same list.

2d, With respect to bastard children, the care of them is cast on the putative father by several statutes, from the 18 Eliz. c. 3. to a very recent time. Under them, two justices out of a general session, or the general quarter session itself, have power to examine and adjudge who is the father of an illegitimate child with which any woman is pregnant, or of which she may have been delivered, and to award such sum for past expences and future maintenance as they shall deem necessary for the indemnification of the parish. Disobedience of the order subjects the offender to three months imprisonment. The parish officers may however take a bond from the putative father, and unless the child becomes chargeable, they cannot in any way interfere with his manner of providing for, or educating it. There are also statutes for punishing the fathers and mothers of such children; but they are seldom, if ever, enforced.

3d, As to putting out apprentices. It is in the discretion of the churchwardens and overseers (as appears by the preamble 43 Eliz.) to select for this purpose such children as they shall think their parents are unable to maintain. But this must be with the consent of two or more justices, in whom the statute vests a power to make an order. The age of the apprentice is of no importance, nor is the condition of the master. The statute also compels parishioners of sufficient ability in certain cases to receive apprentices. When an apprentice is effectually bound, his master takes him for better or worse, and is to provide for him in sickness and in health. But the justices cannot order him wages during the term of his apprenticeship, or any thing to be given him after the term is ended.

4th,

4th, The relief of the poor out of the parochial fund. This is by far the most expensive and most ordinary mode of obtaining relief. The objects of it are, 1st, settled poor; 2d, casual poor. A great many general as well as local statutes regulate and prescribe the modes of administering, applying for, and enforcing this relief, which is given to the paupers at their own dwellings, or by receiving them into workhouses. If application is made at a public meeting of the parish, or to two overseers, and relief refused, a justice has power to summon the overseers, and on their not shewing sufficient cause, to order them to relieve the paupers in such manner (subject to proper restrictions) as he may think just. The jurisdiction to make orders for relief of the poor by the sessions, and by a single justice, are concurrent. No appeal therefore lies against an order of maintenance; and the reason is, lest while the point is litigating, the poor should starve. For disobedience of these orders the parish officers may be indicted.

Where a poor person, not settled in a parish, becomes chargeable, from accident or sudden calamity, he falls within the description of casual poor, and the parish in which he is detained becomes bound to relieve and take care of him. This obligation is so strong that if a parishioner, not being a parish officer, takes care of one rendered poor and impotent from sudden accident, as by the fracture of a limb, he may recover against the parish officers the sum expended for his cure and support, upon an implied promise, arising from this their duty. But the parish cannot recover, as upon an implied promise, the sum which they have expended for his relief from the place in which he is settled, although they give notice to the officers of the parish where the pauper is settled, pending his illness. Neither have they a remedy against the master of a servant who becomes suddenly disabled by misfortune; for parishes are under a moral as well as a legal obligation to take care of their casual poor.

OVERSEERS' ACCOUNTS. When the parish officers are retiring from office, their remaining duty is to make up and pass their accounts, and to deliver over the balance to their successors, together with the property and documents of the parish. This duty is prescribed and enforced by various statutes. Their accounts are to be verified on oath before a magistrate, and if not satisfactory to the parishioners, or any of them, an appeal lies to the session. They are also, within fourteen days after their year expires, to deliver to their successors a just and perfect account in writing,

ing, fairly entered in a book, of their receipts and expenditures, &c. ; and the succeeding overseers are required to keep them safely. They are allowed fourteen days after they go out of office to pay and deliver over to their successors the money and other property of the parish remaining in their hands ; but if they do not deliver in their account, and pay over the money, &c., as required by 17 Geo. II. c. 38., two justices may immediately commit such as refuse, until they do. When the balance of an account is found against parish officers, the justices who take the account under 43 Eliz. have power to make an order for them to pay the balance, as well as to issue warrants to distrain. They may likewise make a joint order upon all the officers to pay ; for all constitute but one joint officer ; and payment to one is payment to all, and the payment by one a discharge of all. And although the 43d Eliz. directs that the balance shall be paid to the succeeding overseers, yet if it has not been paid to them, the order may direct it to be paid to those who are overseers at the time when such order is made. A further remedy for neglecting to pay over such balance is by indictment, which lies for this offence, as also for refusal to account within the limited time by statute, or for making a fraudulent charge in the account. If they refuse to deliver public books and papers belonging to the parish, the Court of King's Bench will issue a mandamus to compel them.

APPEALS. In almost every instance where power is given to the justices by the poor laws, an appeal is allowed to the session, which may finally decide the point in dispute, or if the law is difficult, may grant leave to the party against whom they have decided, to carry a report of the facts found at the session as a case for the judgment of the Court of King's Bench. In these cases, however, the justices in session certify all the facts, and their statement cannot be controverted or explained: the law alone is left to the court above.

OBSERVATIONS. The system so amply described, involving as it must a great expence, and no inconsiderable portion of litigation, has not escaped from the animadversions of many sensible writers and profound politicians. The mode of supporting the poor is decried as too burthensome on the inferior householder, who, while reduced almost to actual misery himself, is obliged to part with what he cannot spare, in order to supply the less feeling mendicant with better food, cloathing, and lodging, than he himself, with all his industry, can obtain. It is censured as extinguishing in the bosom of the lower class that honest spirit of independence
which

which makes a man strive to retain a home of his own, and spurn eleemosynary relief as a degradation. The idleness which is thus introduced and encouraged is lamented, not only as an incentive to evil, but as a diminution of the general good arising from general labour. All these objections have their foundation on truth, but the necessity of maintaining, or at least relieving the poor, presses, with daily clamour, on those who are to distribute the funds allowed for that purpose, and as the statute 43 Eliz. was not passed till every other device had been essayed in vain, and as no plan has yet been proposed capable of answering as a substitute, it must be supposed, until the contrary shall be made appear, that the present system, with all its faults, is the only one which can be made generally useful and beneficial.

The following extract from the work of Mr. Oddy on Commerce is worthy of attention, as well for the reasoning as the facts it contains.

“ In every society there is a number of persons who are, either from extreme old age, from having lost their parents in early youth, or from bodily disease or infirmity, unable to provide for their own maintenance. In every well-regulated society, humanity dictates to those who are in health and affluence to provide for this helpless portion of the human race, either by voluntary subscription, by the charity of individuals administered by themselves, or by a tax laid upon the whole, and administered by persons appointed for the purpose. The latter is the mode adopted in England; and it is of lessening the expences of the poor, when provided for on that plan, that we mean to speak; not pretending to enter into parochial details, or to propose complicated schemes or a repeal of existing laws, but merely to propose simple and practicable means of lessening the immense burthen that is felt by the nation on that account, which will be the less difficult, as it is evident that the great expence that arises is owing to a wasteful and wrong administration of the funds; for whether we compare the present expence with what it was in times past in this nation, or what it is now, in either it is most enormous; and as the proportion of those who can labour, and those who cannot, is naturally the same in all places, and at all times, this great excess, beyond that of any other time or place, must either be owing to bad laws or bad execution of them. That it is in the latter will appear from this circumstance. In 1793, some parts of the poor system that were most manifestly bad, were altered, at the suggestion of the Right Honourable George Rose, who has had equal attention to the interests of the nation, and the

the claims of humanity in what he did ; but still the poor's rate has increased more than in the due proportion. It is true that, since then, we have been constantly at war, and that every necessary of life has grown dearer ; but still, with all allowances for that, the increase of expence is beyond what it would be reasonable to expect.

It is to the amelioration of the mode of acting under the present laws, not to an alteration of them, that we are to look for a reduction of expence, and nothing will be proposed of doubtful practicability.

After viewing the wonderful resources which remain to be brought into action in England, and the variety of means for increasing industry, foreigners may well look with surprise at the great number of our poor, when those of every description might be employed ; but, above all, the immense expence to provide for them. The poor's rates of England and Wales alone amount to half as much as the whole revenue of the Russian empire ; and the number of paupers, or objects receiving parochial relief, is near one seventh part of the population of England and Wales.

After tithes, there is not perhaps a greater grievance to the land owner of England than the poor's rates, nor which gives rise to more litigation, or general animosity in almost every parish. Respecting the poor of England, king Henry VII., in 1496, and king Henry VIII., in 1536, first caused some voluntary relief to be administered ; but the fifth of Elizabeth was the first period that poor-laws became compulsory, and those statutes, then passed, are many of them still in force ; each parish being compelled to support its own poor, though upon a principle of humanity not practised in any other country in the world than England*.

The present poor-laws are impolitic in a free country like this, in many instances ; they put the poor man under many restraints, prejudicial, indeed, not only to himself, but to the community ; the law of settlements being a great hardship to individuals, and a disadvantage to the nation at large. Let the labourer go where he can get best paid for his industry, as in Ireland, without restraint ; those parishes through which he passes should afford relief, and transfer the charge to the parish to which he belongs. Were this the case, the poor would, in many instances, be less burdensome.

* King James VI. of Scotland, in 1579, made some favourable laws for the poor of that kingdom, which were ratified in the reigns of King Charles II. and King William.

Davenant observes, towards the end of the reign of Charles II., that the poor's rates of England and Wales were 665,302*l*. By the accounts laid before parliament in the following years, the money raised for the poor was, in

1776.	£.	s.	d.
England - - - - -	1,679,585	0	0
Wales - - - - -	440,731	14	7
	<u>2,120,316</u>	14	7

Money expended for the poor in

England - - - - -	1,523,163	12	7
Wales - - - - -	33,640	13	8
	<u>1,556,804</u>	6	3

And, in litigation - - - - -	35,072	0	8
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1786.	£.	s.	d.
By rates in England - - - - -	2,063,098	11	5
Wales - - - - -	66,622	12	2
	<u>2,129,721</u>	3	7

Money expended for the poor in

England - - - - -	1,945,996	19	10
Wales - - - - -	60,000	17	1
	<u>2,005,997</u>	16	11

In the 43d of his present majesty, an act passed for procuring returns relative to the expence and maintenance of the poor in England and Wales; on the 9th of May 1804, such account was laid on the table of the House of Commons.

A particular specification is given of the number of objects relieved, and the sum raised to afford that relief; likewise to what particular purposes that money has been applied.

That the expence is unequal, on account of the places, is in some degree certain; Middlesex being dearer than Wales; but a still greater inequality appears to arise from management; as, in counties contiguous to each other, such as Gloucester and Hereford, the difference is more than one half. This is seen from the returns made.

From the number of poor varying as three to one in the hundred, it is clear that there must be caprice and bad management in that, as well as in the expenditure: that is, in

some places they refuse relief when it should be given, and probably, in others, give it when it should be refused.

As to gaining any thing considerable by working, there are no materials to work upon; at least the materials, if taken by the number of persons in and out of workhouses, would not amount to two shillings a-year each person!

From the table of which this is the result, it appears that the highest expence of maintaining poor in workhouses, is 14*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*, the lowest 8*l.* 1*s.*, the greatest number per hundred is 23; the lowest 7; and that if the whole were at the lowest rate, it would only cost 2,500,000*l.*, if at the lowest number, and lowest rate, 800,000*l.*

If we add to this, that those actually assisted would work, there can be no doubt that the poor's rates might be reduced to a very small sum.

The following calculation is just half what, in recourse to proper management, it might be reckoned.

	£.
From a diminution in the number relieved -	1,500,000
From greater economy in administration -	1,000,000
From the labour of those relieved, suppose 700,000, at 5 <i>l.</i> each -	3,500,000
	6,000,000

The following is the state resulting from the inquiry mentioned, the description of the objects relieved, and the money raised and expended.

Persons relieved out of the workhouses, (not including their children) -	329,729
Persons relieved in workhouses, including children -	80,492
The children of persons relieved permanently, and others, out of the workhouses, under five years of age -	119,780
Ditto, five to fourteen years of age -	193,587
Persons relieved occasionally -	299,823
Persons relieved, not being parishioners -	183,070
	1,206,481

Number of persons who are above sixty years of age, or disabled from labour by permanent illness, or other infirmity -	166,581
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The number of Friendly Societies, who hold their meetings within each parish or place, are 9397, containing persons -	882,050
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Children in the schools of industry -	20,703
	Money

THE POOR.

623

	£.	s.	d.
Money expended for the poor, out of the workhouses, or houses of industry - - -	3,015,745	1	5½
Money expended in workhouses, or houses of industry - - -	1,020,506	18	2½
Expended in suits of law, removals of paupers, and expences of overseers, and other officers - - -	198,127	13	1½
Expended for church rates, highways, &c. &c. ending Easter 1803	980,434	14	0½
Total expenditure - - -	5,214,814	6	10½

	£.	s.	d.
Total amount of money raised by the poor's rates, and other rates in England and Wales, for the year ending Easter 1803 -	5,246,506	13	7½
The average rate of England is per pound - - -		0	4 6½
Ditto, Wales ditto - - -		0	7 3
Ditto, of England and Wales, ditto		0	4 8
Money expended in purchasing materials for employing the poor out of the workhouses, or houses of industry - - - £ 11,168 6 6¾	which produced £. s. d. 21,605 15 7½		
Those in workhouses, &c. - - -	39,616	18	2
	50,785	4	8¾
	87,889	9	11½

Amount of the first cost of the raw materials - - -	50,785	4	8¾
Profit by their labour - - -	37,104	5	2½

The total number of persons receiving parochial relief were - - -	1,206,481
Deduct those disabled from labour, by illness or infirmity, above sixty years of age - - -	66,581
Children under five years of age - - -	119,700
	286,281
Then there remain capable of some labour - - -	920,200
There	

There were then 1,206,481 people taken out of the population, who chiefly lived upon the industry of the others; of these 920,200 are fully capable to work and earn more or less, hitherto a heavy burden upon the other part of the community; and surely it is not difficult to devise means to bring their industry into action, suitable to their ability, strength, and situation.

If we were steadily to adopt the resolution of raising our own hemp and flax amongst ourselves, upon our waste lands, the dressing of those articles by some, and the various departments of labour for others, even the most feeble being able to spin the yarn finer or coarser, as in different parts of Lithuania, Ermland, and Germany, where even the women and children assist in every process of sowing, pulling, watering, and dressing the flax, afterwards spinning and weaving, as is to be seen in every cottage and village, yarn might, at any event, be produced, of which we import so considerable a quantity.

The raising of hemp and flax throughout the country would give general employment, and if every occupier of land, instead of contributing his rates in money, was obliged to contribute by producing so much hemp and flax, upon the principle of the existing act of 24th Henry VIII., and also of the 5th Elizabeth, it would furnish the raw material for the employment of the poor, diffused throughout the kingdom, without the expence of carriage, from one place to another. Supposing that 920,200 persons, one with another, earned only five-pence halfpenny per day each; and only reckoning that they were employed three hundred days in the year, it would produce 5,176,125*l.* per annum. There is no article or manufacture so well adapted as hemp and flax for their employment, nor capable of so many different degrees of labour and perfection, without injuring any other species of our manufactures. Flax alone seems particularly the article which the poor should be occupied in, because one acre will produce as much flax as is sufficient to employ as many hands, as twenty acres will produce of wool. Flax, too, is capable of being wrought to any state of fineness or value, from one shilling a pound to four guineas an ounce, which is sometimes paid for fine thread for making lace in Flanders.

There is no article so suitable, or which can be manufactured with so much ease as flax; it has the advantage over the woollen manufacture, and particularly the cotton, which cannot be carried on without mechanism. About four acres of land, in each parish, in flax, would employ all the poor,
only

only to carry it to the state of weaving, at which time it would be sold or woven at the expence of the parish. Towns and country parishes might have a commutation of labour and land, or produce, and all would go on easily."

The great error in these calculations, and in the remedy proposed by Mr. Oddy, consists in his supposing that all who receive relief are entirely dependent on the parochial fund. That it is not so is very evident; for 5,246,506*l.* would never support 1,206,481 people. If they are not totally dependent, they cannot be made to work in the way he supposes; nor is it fit they should, considering how many other employments are in readiness for them. Of the persons relieved out of the workhouse, and those relieved occasionally, the far greater portion are sick or wounded men, and lying-in women, who, as soon as their ailments cease, return to labour. The class from five years old to fourteen, is a very wide and vague description, as in most parishes the children above seven years of age, although lodged in and fed from the workhouse, are made to earn their own subsistence. The persons relieved not being parishioners, are either casual poor, who are immediately passed to another parish, and so melted down into the other classes, or soldiers' wives with certificates entitling them to relief, or vagrants with passes, in their transit from one parish to another. These are not capable of contributing more than they do to the public benefit.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES. One of the particulars contained in the enumeration of poor by Mr. Oddy, is those who are formed into friendly societies. These societies, which are also often denominated benefit clubs, cannot be too much commended. They have been established among the working people and others for about a century; and the experience of the advantages derived from them has extended them to almost every part of Great Britain. It is perhaps unnecessary to inform the reader, that the purpose of these institutions is to put it in the power of the industrious many to relieve the wants of the industrious few, who may be disabled by sickness or age from gaining their bread, out of a fund created by their own periodical contributions. Therefore, when they are judiciously established, upon equitable and scientific principles, they must be of great moral and political advantage, in giving a check to that abandoned, and too general, propensity to waste, and disregard of character, which induce many of the lower class of people to throw themselves upon the parish rather than work; to introduce, or rather restore, an independence of spirit, a reliance upon

their own exertions, and an honourable pride in placing a dependence upon funds derived from their own industry; and to counteract the heavy and growing oppression of the poor's rates. The legislature, thinking the protection and encouragement of such societies likely to promote the happiness of individuals, and diminish the public burthens, invested them with the powers and privileges of corporations, on condition that their rules be submitted to the inspection of the justices in quarter sessions, and confirmed by them, which gives them great advantages in the management of their funds, and defends them from depredations. The courts are required to administer speedy justice to the societies against any of their officers who withhold their funds; and the effects of deceased officers of the societies are made liable for the debts due to them in preference to the claims of all other creditors. The courts are also directed to appoint council and agents to manage their causes, who, as well as the officers of the courts, are required to do their duty without fee or reward: neither is any stamp duty chargeable upon the proceedings in such causes. To prevent the members of such societies from defrauding those who have a right to be relieved by them, they are debarred from dissolving themselves and dividing the funds, unless they have obtained the consent in writing of all entitled to relief, and of five-sixths of the society. The members of the societies are exempted from the hardship of being driven from the parish wherein their choice, or their interest, induces them to live, unless they or their families actually become chargeable without having obtained a legal settlement in such parish. See 33 Geo. III. c. 54. 35 Geo. III. c. 111. 43 Geo. III. c. 111. 49 Geo. III. c. 123.

Mr. Colquhoun reckoned 1600 friendly societies in London and its neighbourhood, in the year 1799, of which 800 had enrolled themselves according to law. He estimates the number of members to be 80,000, and their annual contributions to be 1*l.* from each member; but since the time when his treatise was written, they have much increased; and probably since the return was made to parliament from which Mr. Oddy derives his statement, a considerable augmentation has taken place.

Sir Frederick Eden illustrates the beneficial effects of such societies upon the labouring classes, by "comparing the condition of those who are members of them, and of those who, in the same village, are contented to rely on the parish for relief. The former are, in general, comparatively cleanly, orderly, and sober, and consequently happy, and good

good members of society; whilst the latter are living in filth and wretchedness, and are often, from the pressure of a casual sickness, or accident, which incapacitates them from working, tempted to the commission of improper acts, (not to say crimes,) against which the sure resource of a benefit club would have been the best preservative."

Both Mr. Colquhoun and Sir Frederick Eden recommend a prohibition of the purchase of lottery tickets, or any other gambling adventures, by the societies corporately, or the members individually; and it would be a most beneficial exertion for the public, if the legislature could prevent these excellent associations from being converted into confederacies for raising the price of labour and distressing and over-awing their masters.

VOLUNTARY RELIEF. But as every plan of social benevolence, however wisely framed and prudently administered, must be inadequate, unless the efforts of individual virtue are called in aid of the public contribution, so it would inevitably happen that the money raised by rates, however large in its amount, would leave a frightful mass of misery unrelieved, were it not for the active generosity and eager compassion of the British character, which is displayed throughout all parts of the empire in permanent establishments and temporary donations to an extent unparalleled in the annals of man. In the following pages, some account will be given of the institutions in and near the metropolis, extracted from a late publication by Mr. Highmore. The display is striking and impressive, and if the catalogue were augmented by the charities established in every county in the kingdom, it would create in the mind of the reader a mingled sensation of awe and rapture.

In England, this author observes, private and public charity has become universal. It may be truly affirmed that private beneficence is too extensive and too diffident to be known; the highest and the lowest, the richest and the poorest, have alike a heart for pity. Thousands of cottages will produce an aged parent bending to the grave, hoary and blind with years, receiving the comfort and perhaps the only support of a dutiful son or an affectionate daughter, whose daily labour scarcely supplies sufficient food for the subsistence of themselves and their children. In some, mental or bodily imbecility will be found protected and cherished, and acting as an additional stimulus to industry and a sober life; in others, the desire of kind and neighbourly offices, the returns of acknowledgment, personal attention and interest in sickness, assistance in danger and trouble, and above all,

the salutary communication of religious consolation, have become so common that they are little noticed, and never recorded by the busy passing world; but they add to the glory of the age in which we have the happiness to live, and extend the beams of mercy and truth under which we may bend with reverence and gratitude.

The private benevolences of the rich and powerful are in England countless as the sand; an attempt to enumerate the gifts which every family and every individual of it bestow, would be vain. It is, alike, impracticable to tell the various channels in which the stream of benevolence flows among equals; all these the veil of humility and charity conceals, and if they are ever known it is by their effects. It is thus that the spirit to think and to do what is right is abroad amongst us, and has persuaded our hearts that we are intrusted with each other's welfare.

But the benevolence which is public in England is seen every where. The legislative and parochial taxation for the poor is estimated at an annual amount of several millions; in addition to which, no part of the army or of the navy, the church, or any other establishment, not the smallest congregation for worship among the numerous denominations of Christians or of Jews, not the smallest district, not a hamlet or a village unknown to the passing traveller, and too insignificant to find a place on the map, not a city or town, parish, or ward, throughout the United Kingdom, not a manufactory of the least extent, not a corporate association, or company for trade, agriculture, science, education, or medicine, not a club for the enjoyment of festivity, for the pleasures of the chace, or for the indulgence even of luxury in her various folds, not even a theatre, will be found without their respective institutions of charity, to which a willing and prompt subscription flows almost without solicitation; and in all which, both the extent of opulence and splendor, and the parsimonious distribution of the scantiest means, alike afford for the necessitous a proportional tythe, and far more than a tythe of all they possess. Thus, every individual in England becomes a benefactor to others, and thereby is the greatest benefactor to himself.

The enumeration which is to ensue will only particularly describe a few of the most important institutions in each class; for more ample details, the reader is referred to the ample, though compressed, volume of Mr. Highmore; and it is to be recollected that in this work an account has already been given of several establishments supported at the public expence, or which are altogether public in their objects,

objects, as the hospitals of Greenwich and Chelsea, the Marine Society, and several of the public seminaries.

HOSPITALS. The most conspicuous of these are the five which are termed *royal*, namely, St. Bartholomew's, Bethlem, Bridewell, Christ's, and St. Thomas's.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S. The original foundation of this extensive building has been traced from the earliest documents and records to the benevolence of Raherus, in 1102, who is said to have been minstrel to Henry I.: he founded a priory of black canons, of whom he was the first prior, contiguous to it, with an endowment of 553*l.* per annum; and the estates which he also settled upon this hospital were then valued at 305*l.* His establishment was, for brethren and sisters, sick persons, and pregnant women. Many additional endowments were from time to time made, and at length its title was settled to be "the mayor and commonalty, and citizens of the city of London, as governors of the house of the poor, commonly called St. Bartholomew's Hospital, near West Smithfield, London, of the foundation of king Henry VIII." The whole of its buildings happily escaped the general fire in 1666, but a considerable part of the houses which constituted its chief revenue were destroyed. The hospital was repaired in 1691, and by the liberality of the corporation and citizens, its houses were rebuilt, and its income restored; the progress of the foundation was carried on uninterruptedly until the year 1729, when upon a general survey, the buildings of the hospital were found by their antiquity to have become ruinous and dangerous; a subscription was therefore promoted for defraying the expence of an entirely new structure upon its present plan of a quadrangle, each side being detached from the others, and united only by stone gateways. To effect this, the ancient cloister was removed. The first stone was laid by the lord mayor, in presence of divers aldermen and other governors, on the 9th of June 1730, in which was affixed a plate of copper with the following inscription: "This building was begun by the voluntary subscription of the governors of St. Bartholomew's Hospital, in the fourth year of the reign of king George II., A.D. 1730, in the mayoralty of Sir Richard Brocas, knt., then president of the said hospital."

The application for admission to St. Bartholomew's Hospital is greatly facilitated by the readiness with which all information is given to the poor and their friends at the steward's office, where the necessary petition is delivered gratis, in which the name and the disease are to be inserted,

and some housekeeper is to sign an undertaking to receive the patient when discharged, or to bury him if he should die in the hospital.

BETHLEM. This hospital originates from a priory, founded in 1274. At the suppression of monasteries by Henry VIII., the value of the priory was estimated at 504*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.* Sir John Gresham, lord mayor, petitioned the king for it with success. In 1547 he granted its lands and revenues to the corporation of London, for the reception and maintenance of lunatics; and in 1549, letters patent were issued to John Whitehead, proctor of the hospital, to solicit donations within the counties of Lincoln and Cambridge, the city of London, and Isle of Ely. In the reign of Edward VI. it was united to the parish of St. Botolph, Bishopsgate. The confined limits and decaying state of the priory were little calculated for the reception of those who were the objects of its attention, and whose numbers unhappily increased; as there was no limitation in the grant, they made applications for admission from all parts of the kingdom; it was therefore found necessary to remove it and enlarge its accommodations, which was begun in April 1644, and the corporation allotted a large piece of ground near London Wall, on the south side of the lower quarter of Moorfields, for this purpose: the building was begun and completed by voluntary contributions, in 1676, at an expence of 17,000*l.* The design was taken from the Chateau des Tuilleries, at Paris; the center and wings of stone, with Corinthian pilasters, but the body of brick. Louis XIV. was so much offended at this copy of his palace, that he ordered a plan of St. James's palace to be taken for offices of a very inferior nature. The two lunatics upon the pillars of the front gates were the work of Caius Gabriel Cibber, a native of Holstein, who came into England some time before the restoration; their great merit has rendered them so justly celebrated, that it is said the king of Denmark, in his visit to London, offered a considerable sum for them. In 1708 a license was granted by queen Anne, to the corporation, to purchase and hold in fee, or for lives, or years, or otherwise, in trust for this hospital, any lands, &c. to the value of 2000*l.* per annum. The increase of applications rendered a further enlargement necessary, and in 1733 two wings were added, which enabled the governors to maintain one hundred incurable patients, fifty of each sex. The number of patients capable of relief amounts, on an average, to one hundred and seventy; and of these it has been found upon an average that nearly two out of three are

restored to their understanding. There are, however, generally about two hundred upon the incurable list. When a patient after sufficient trial is judged incurable, he is dismissed from the hospital, and if he is pronounced to be dangerous either to himself or to others, his name is entered in a book, that he may be received in turn among the incurables maintained in the house whenever a vacancy shall happen; but as the instances of longevity are frequent in such cases, they are usually obliged to wait six or seven years after their dismissal, before they can be re-admitted. This increasing and melancholy evil has induced many benevolent persons to appropriate their bounty to the necessities of incurables, and this has also led many erroneously to suppose that this hospital was connected with that of St. Luke.

The admission of patients is attended with very little difficulty. It is first necessary to consider whether the case includes any of those circumstances which prudence has dictated to be objections; these are few in number, mopes, idiots, women with child, persons afflicted with the palsy, blindness, lameness, subject to convulsive or epileptic fits, venereal disease, itch, and such as are weak through age and long illness: and, on the other hand, no person is considered as disqualified who may have been discharged uncured from any other lunatic hospital. The forms of the petition and of certificates of legal settlement are delivered gratis at the steward's office, which, when properly inserted, are to be accompanied by a governor's recommendation; and upon admission, two housekeepers, resident in or near London, enter into a bond to take away the patient when properly discharged by the committee, and to pay the expense of clothes and burial in case of death. If the lunatic is sent by a parish, or any other public body, 3*l.* 4*s.* is paid for bedding; but if he is placed there by friends, the sum is benevolently reduced to 2*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*; a supply of clothing is also expected, on failure of which, the hospital supplies that article, and charges the amount to the bondsmen, one set of which for men amounts to about 3*l.* 8*s.*, and for women to 2*l.* 6*s.* Where the lunatic is judged a fit object for this charity, he is delivered to the steward, who, under the direction of the physician, assigns him such a degree of care and confinement as his case may require: the cells are visited early every morning by the servants of the house, who make their report to the apothecary, who is constantly resident in the hospital; he follows their report by his personal inspection; the physician visits three times every week; and certain days are fixed for the proper medical

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operations,

operations, and the hot and cold bath are used when necessary. Every patient is indulged with such liberty of walking in the long galleries as may be properly consistent with his own and the general safety. In the winter season there are rooms with comfortable fires, defended by large iron guards, where the convalescent meet and associate; and in the summer time, in the adjoining court-yards.

The hospital used formerly to derive a revenue of at least 400*l.* a-year from the indiscriminate admission of visitants, whom very often an idle and wanton curiosity drew to these regions of distress; but this liberty was found to counteract the great design of recovery by tranquillity, and was therefore abolished in 1770, by express order, since which time the house has scarcely ever been open to strangers, unless particularly introduced. At the patient's departure he is encouraged to apply to the medical officer for advice and medicines proper to prevent a relapse, and in cases of pecuniary distress, the treasurer and physician possess a discretionary power to relieve him with a small sum of money.

BRIDEWELL, Has already been noticed in this Volume, (p. 529.)

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL. Of this establishment also, some account is given in this Volume, p. 84.

SAINT THOMAS'S. This hospital was established for the same purposes as that of St. Bartholemew; it is situated on the east side of the borough of Southwark; Camden and Maitland agree in stating, that it owes its foundation to a casual fire which happened in that neighbourhood in the year 1207, which destroyed the priory of Saint Mary over Rhe; the canons erected an hospital near the spot, for the celebration of mass until the monastery could be rebuilt; this was soon after accomplished; but Peter de Rupibus, bishop of Winchester, for the greater convenience of air and water, removed the hospital in 1215, and erected it in a place where Richard, prior of Bermondsey, had only two years before built an almoury, or alms-house, for the reception of indigent children and necessitous profelytes; and having dedicated it to St. Thomas the apostle, endowed it with land to the value of 343*l.* per annum, from which time it was held of the abbot of Bermondsey, and since of the bishops of Winchester, who were its patrons at the time of the Reformation, when its value was estimated at 266*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*: it was surrendered to the crown in 1538, by Nicholas Buckland, the then master. Besides the estates belonging to this hospital, was the site of an ancient mansion-house,

house, called Skinner's-place, forty acres of land, with certain rents and services in West Greenwich, in Kent, which was conveyed in 1349, by Ralph Nonthey, to William, bishop of Winchester, and others, who conveyed them in the same year to this hospital. In 1551 the mayor and citizens of London having purchased of Edward VI. the manor of Southwark, for the sum of 647*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.*, which comprised the site of this hospital, repaired and enlarged it at an expence of 1100*l.*, and in the following month of November, received into it 260 poor, sick, and helpless objects, upon which the king, in 1553, incorporated it with St. Bartholemew, Bridewell, Bethlem, and Christ's Hospitals. Although the great fire of London did not reach this place, yet the revenues of this hospital suffered considerable injury by it, and also by three great fires in Southwark in 1676, 1681, and 1689, and further by the decay of some of its buildings, which were very ancient, and in a low, damp, and incommodious situation, unfit for the reception of the sick; a subscription for the purpose of rebuilding them was therefore set on foot, and this great object was accomplished in 1693, when the buildings were erected, consisting of three quadrangles, one facing the street, and two interior squares: the three wards on the south side of the first were erected at the charge of Thomas Guy, citizen and stationer, in 1707; and three on the north side by Thomas Frederic, Esq., one of the governors, in 1708: the whole containing nineteen wards and four hundred and seventy-four beds, which are always occupied; and many out-patients are also relieved. To this a new building was added in 1732, consisting of several wards, a brewhouse, and offices, at the expence of the funds of the charity; so that it now consists of four quadrangular courts, in the first of which are wards for women; in the second two chapels, the smallest of which is for the private use of the hospital, and the largest is for parochial use; in the same court, and adjoining to them, are the houses of the treasurer and other officers: in the third court are wards for men; and the fourth contains wards, hot and cold baths, a surgery, theatre, apothecary's shop, &c. Although it does not appear that there were any estates annexed to the city's original purchase of this hospital, yet the beneficence of the corporation and their fellow-citizens, and others, contributed to raise a very considerable endowment, so as to secure the permanent objects of it, and even to extend its designs; and its progressive utility has been proved by the increase of the persons who have required

quired its relief; their number, including out-patients, may be taken at an average of six or seven years at nine thousand, and the expenditure at about 10,000*l*.

Besides these royal hospitals, there are

BETH HOLIM, At Mile-end, Old-town. An hospital or infirmary for receiving the sick, poor, and aged men and women, and lying-in women, of the community of Spanish and Portuguese Jews, instituted by voluntary contributions in 1748.

GERMAN AND DUTCH JEWS' HOSPITAL, At Mile-end, Old-town. This establishment arose from the philanthropic exertions of Benjamin and Abraham Goldsmid, Esqrs., who, in 1795, commenced a collection among their friends for a fund, to form a charitable institution of more extent than that of Beth Holim. It was founded on the 17th of February 1806, and opened on the 28th of June 1807.

CANCER INSTITUTION. A society was formed in June 1803, for the purpose of investigating the nature of this afflicting malady. It was carried on some time, but discontinued; a portion of the subscription still remains in the funds, in the names of trustees, to await a more favourable opportunity for renewing the progress of the charity: it is however to be remembered that several wards in the established hospitals have been wholly appropriated to the cure or relief of cancer.

EMANUEL HOSPITAL, Tothill-fields, Westminster. This establishment owes its foundation to Gregory, Lord Dacre, in the time of Queen Elizabeth. He intended to have given 110*l*. in money, toward building it, and 40*l*. a-year in lands for ever, toward the relief of aged people, and bringing up of children in virtue and good and laudable arts; his lordship dying before his intentions were executed, his lady took up the plan and carried it into effect.

THE FEVER HOSPITAL, Constitution-row, Gray's-Inn-lane. In 1801, some papers were published by eminent physicians, and by the society for bettering the condition of the poor, relative to the prevention and cure of contagious fevers. In May, a meeting was held for forming an institution in the metropolis. The Duke of Somerset, the Earl of Pomfret, Dr. Porteus, Bishop of London, and Dr. Barrington, Bishop of Durham, who was called to the chair, together with many respectable inhabitants, were present. On the certificates of many eminent physicians, they adopted unanimously, upon the motion of Lord Sheffield, the resolutions declaratory of the prevalence of fever, and that it might be prevented by cleansing and purifying the clothes, furniture

furniture and apartments of persons attacked; and by removing them from situations where infection would be inevitable. A subscription was opened, and an institution formed for checking the progress of fever in the metropolis, and for removing the causes of infection from the dwellings of the poor, upon a plan similar to that which had been adopted with great success at Manchester. Measures were immediately taken to give effect to these benevolent intentions, and in 1802 the hospital was opened.

SAINT GEORGE'S HOSPITAL, Hyde-park-corner. The site of this hospital was formerly the seat of James Lane, Viscount Lanesborough, who died there in 1724. This undertaking was set on foot soon after Michaelmas 1733, by some gentlemen who were before concerned in a similar charity in the lower part of Westminster. The subscription increased so fast, that on the 19th of October, they were formed into a regular society, and began to receive patients on the 1st of January following. The patients consist of all such poor, sick, and lame, being recommended according to the rules, as the hospital will contain. They are supplied with advice, medicine, diet, washing, lodging, and some of the poorest with clothes also. The physicians visit their patients on Mondays and Fridays, and on intermediate days, whenever occasion requires; and the surgeons every day; and on every Friday morning there is a general consultation of all the physicians and surgeons.

To this hospital is annexed a society similar in its purpose and effect to that at the London Hospital; it is called

The Charity for Convalescents of St. George's Hospital. This institution was formed by a separate subscription in 1809, and the principal objects to which the money is applied are, the purchase of flannel waistcoats, and linen; expences of removing into the country; boarding convalescents in some poor families in the neighbourhood till they are able to work; sending the poor to the hospitals at Bath or Margate; the purchase of trusses, or other instruments, for the security or convenience of the sick, and remuneration to the collector for extra trouble, or salary to an additional officer for looking after the concerns of the charity.

GUY'S HOSPITAL, Southwark. This noble establishment was founded and endowed by the munificence of one citizen of London, named Thomas Guy, a bookseller. From the most inconsiderable beginnings, he amassed, by the joint effects of industry, economy, and good fortune, a prodigious sum of money. The completion of this hospital in 1724 and the following years

years cost upwards of 20,000*l.*, and 200,000*l.* were left as a fund to support it. An act of incorporation was obtained, and the blessing of this foundation it is to be hoped will be preserved to the nation for ever. His charity was not confined to this great monument of his fame: he founded, at Tamworth, in Staffordshire, where his mother was born, alms-houses for fourteen men and women, and a library, and bestowed many liberal benefactions; he bequeathed to Christ's Hospital a perpetual annuity of 400*l.*, for receiving four children yearly, at the nomination of the governors of his own hospital, preference being given to his own kin: to his poor relations he bequeathed annuities for life to the amount of 870*l.*, and among his younger relations and executors 75,589*l.*, and 1000*l.* for discharging poor prisoners within the city and the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, who could be released for 5*l.*; by which legacy, and good management of his executors, above six hundred poor prisoners were set at liberty. And in addition to these bequests he also left a perpetual annuity of 125*l.* for the further support of his fourteen alms-houses, and putting out apprentices.

THE LOCK HOSPITAL, Hyde-park-corner, was instituted on the 4th of July 1746, for the relief of venereal patients only. No patient is admitted a second time.

THE LOCK ASYLUM is an appendage to the hospital, for the reception and reform of the female patients after their cure.

LONDON HOSPITAL, Whitechapel-road. This charity was instituted the 3d of November 1740, chiefly by John Harrison, Esq., its first surgeon, a bust of whom is placed in the committee-room. Four houses were taken in Prescot-street, Goodman's-fields, and furnished with 136 beds; but the beneficence of the public enabled the managers to contract for the purchase of a large piece of ground on the south side of the road leading from Whitechapel to Bow, on which they erected the present extensive building. The work was wholly completed by voluntary contributions, and remains a monument of the virtue and charity chiefly of the inhabitants of the eastern part of the metropolis, the shores of the Thames, and their vicinity. A charter of incorporation was obtained, dated the 2d December 1759. The patients relieved in this hospital consist of sick and wounded seamen, watermen, coalheavers, shipwrights, ropemakers, and labourers in the several docks and on the quays, to whom its situation, contiguous to the river Thames, is of peculiar advantage; beside these, the numerous classes of manu-

manufacturers of all kinds in Spital-fields, Bethnal-green, and the eastern parts of the metropolis, find here a ready asylum in their sickness, as well as for their wives and children.

THE SAMARITAN SOCIETY. The consulting-room in the London Hospital was allotted in 1792 for the meetings and business of this society. The objects are correctly expressed in the following inscription placed in the room: "The Samaritan Society: an appendage to the London Hospital, for the relief and prevention of various circumstances of distress not within the provision of public hospitals: instituted A. D. 1791; depends for its means of administering comfort, and obtaining permanency, upon donations and bequests."

SAINT LUKE'S HOSPITAL, Old-street. This institution was set on foot in 1751, by a few benevolent persons, who, observing that the hospitals then established were not capable of receiving all the lunatic patients who applied for relief, opened a subscription for a new hospital, under the name of *Saint Luke's Hospital for Lunatics*, which has since enjoyed a large portion of the patronage and support of the public. The original establishment was on the north side of the Upper Moorfields, called Windmill-hill; the first stone was laid by the late Duke of Montague, as president, on the 30th of July 1732; it was completely finished and opened for the reception of patients on the 1st of July 1737; the estate was leasehold, held of the corporation of London, and as the accommodations were not sufficiently extensive to receive more than one hundred and ten patients, it was deemed most advantageous to suffer the lease to expire, and to seek a larger ground-plot. The present extensive building cost 5000*l.*, which was raised by voluntary contributions. It stands upon leasehold ground belonging to Saint Bartholemew's Hospital; the lease is held for a term of forty years, renewable every fourteen years on payment of a fine of 200*l.*, and at the yearly rent of 200*l.* It was completely finished at the close of the year 1786, and on the 1st of January 1787, which was exactly fifty years after the first foundation, the patients were removed into it.

THE QUEEN'S LYING-IN HOSPITAL, Baywater. In 1752, this hospital was first established at a house in Saint George's-row, near the turnpike, entering upon the Uxbridge road, where it was instituted to embrace the twofold benefit of receiving poor pregnant women, as well married as unmarried, and also of attending them at their
own

own habitations, within a limited circuit. About 1794 it was removed to the house now occupied for the charity at Bayswater, and was honoured with the patronage of her majesty, whose name was accordingly prefixed to its title.

THE BRITISH LYING-IN HOSPITAL, Brownlow-street. This institution was established in November 1749, under the patronage of the Duke of Portland. The first patients were received on the 7th of December.

THE CITY OF LONDON LYING-IN HOSPITAL, City-road. The first annunciation of this charity was in the year 1750, by the title of the "Hospital for married women in the city of London and parts adjacent, and also for sick and lame out-patients in physic and surgery:" but it does not appear whether it had any particular founder. A few gentlemen, desirous of promoting an object so benevolent, hired apartments in London-house, Aldersgate, which they converted into wards. In the following year, 1751, the hospital was removed to Shaftesbury-house, in the same street; the directors curtailed the original plan, discontinued the reception of out-patients, and assumed a new title, which the institution still retains, of "The city of London lying-in hospital for married women." The increase of subscriptions in eighteen years enabled the governors to erect their present hospital, which was finished and inhabited in April 1773.

WESTMINSTER LYING-IN HOSPITAL, Near the Bridge. This hospital, instituted in 1765, was principally designed as an asylum for the wives of poor industrious tradesmen, or distressed housekeepers, who either by unavoidable misfortunes, or the burthen of large families, might be reduced to want, and rendered incapable of bearing the expences incident to the pregnant and lying-in state; and also for the wives of indigent soldiers and sailors; the former, particularly, being very numerous in and about the city of Westminster. The governors, however, having received many representations of the severe hardships sustained by unmarried women in the state of pregnancy, who are not admitted into other hospitals, and reflecting on the numerous instances where unfortunate women of this description, overwhelmed with shame, and destitute of friends, have been tempted to destroy themselves or their infants, unanimously resolved to admit such of them to participate of the benefits of this charity as should be found to be objects of real distress; but none of this class are admitted a second time.

THE MAGDALEN HOSPITAL, Saint George's-fields. This institution was founded in the year 1758, for the reception, maintenance, and employment, and with a view to reclaim penitent prostitutes, in a building hired for the purpose in Prescot-street, where the support it received, and the applications for admission so much increased, in the first ten years, that it became necessary to remove it. Robert Dingley and Philip Milloway, Esqrs., were among its considerable benefactors, and in their names several pieces of land, containing together about six acres, but lying dispersedly in Saint George's-fields, were purchased out of the funds of the charity, and conveyed to them as trustees for the erection of a new hospital; but the governors not having power to make such exchanges as were necessary to possess the whole in one plot, and many persons having a general right of common there at certain seasons of the year, they were encouraged to apply to parliament for an act of incorporation, which was granted in 1769, by the name of "The president, vice-presidents, treasurer, and governors of the Magdalen Hospital, for the reception of penitent prostitutes." The new hospital was opened in the year 1758. During the period that it has subsisted, more than two-thirds of the women who have been admitted have been reconciled to their friends, or placed in honest employments, or reputable services.

THE MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL, Berner's-street. This hospital was instituted in August 1745, for the reception of sick and lame patients, and in July 1747, an additional provision was made for the relief of lying-in married women; also to supply the indigent and laborious poor of both sexes with advice, medicine, diet, lodging, and other necessities, when afflicted with disease, or rendered by accident incapable of supporting themselves and families: and further, in the year 1792, through the munificence of a humane benefactor, an establishment has been provided for patients afflicted with cancer.

THE LONDON FEMALE PENITENTIARY, Pentonville. More applications having been made at the Magdalen than could be complied with; instead of forming any plan to extend its accommodations, this institution was founded in 1807. It was established on the benevolent principle of affording prompt reception to all females who had fallen into vice, and were desirous of being reformed. A meeting was held at the London Tavern on the 1st of January 1807, when the plan of the institution was resolved, the qualifications were limited, and the external management
confided

confided to a committee of thirty-six gentlemen, and the interior to a committee of twenty-four married ladies. After many diligent inquiries, the committee fixed the establishment at Cumming House, Pentonville, by the purchase of a long lease of the house and adjoining ground, to which they have since added a contiguous building for a temporary infirmary. The penitentiary house is divided into six apartments: a temporary ward for cases of emergency, two probationary wards, wards for persons fully admitted after probation, a ward for diseased subjects, a sick ward, and a refractory ward: a part of the house is appropriated to divine service, which it has not been deemed expedient to open to the public. The industry uniformly prevailing throughout the house encourages the hope that many females once devoted to vice and its concomitant, indolence, will be restored to prudence, and become useful members of society. Their works are plain work, child-bed linen, fancy-work, spinning thread and worsted, knitting, making ladies' shoes and slippers, dress-making, glove-making, corsets, washing, and clear-starching, specimens of all which may be seen and orders given at the house.

THE HOSPITAL FOR POOR FRENCH PROTESTANTS, *and their descendants*, resident in Great Britain. This hospital was built in 1716. Its title declares its purposes.

REFUGE FOR THE DESTITUTE, Cuper's Bridge. This institution was founded in 1806 by voluntary contributions, for the purpose of providing a place of refuge for persons discharged from prison or the hulks, unfortunate and deserted females, and others, who from loss of character or extreme indigence cannot, though willing to work, procure an honest maintenance, and in cases of very urgent necessity to afford temporary relief until parochial or other assistance can be obtained.

SEA-BATHING INFIRMARY *for the Poor of London*, Near Margate. To afford to the poor the benefits, in certain complaints, of sea air and bathing, was the aim of this institution. The facility and cheapness of conveyance by the packets to Margate pointed out that as the fittest place for the establishment, which owes its origin to the benevolence and exertions of Dr. Lettsom, John Nichols, Esq., and the Reverend John Pridden, his son-in-law. After vain attempts to hire, they determined to build a plain structure, with the smallest possible expence, on a convenient spot at Westbrook, near Margate, which they purchased, in 1793, in their joint names. Their scheme was warmly espoused
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by several benevolent persons, who were convinced of the great benefit that would result from it to the poor of the metropolis. The house was opened for the reception of patients in 1796, and its progress has exceeded the most sanguine expectations.

SMALL-POX AND INOCULATION HOSPITAL, St. Pancras. This hospital was provided for the reception of patients infected with the casual small-pox, and for inoculation; where, being separated from the rest of the community, they might enjoy peace and quiet, skill and medicine to promote their recovery, and overcome the sufferings and privations which their poverty in some cases, and their mode of living in others, had increased. Here every necessary comfort is supplied; and the hardships to which they were exposed are lessened and assuaged. The institution of this useful and humane establishment, which was the first of the kind in Europe, originated in the benevolence of a few generous individuals, who in the year 1745 were desirous that a charity of this nature should be founded near the metropolis. Their first meeting was held in the vestry-room of the church of St. Paul, Covent Garden, on Wednesday, 11th February 1746, and by persevering efforts their good intentions were crowned with complete success. The place of reception was often changed, and more establishments than one were maintained at the same time; but finally the house at Battle-bridge, St. Pancras, the site of which was purchased in 1762, became the only receptacle for persons to receive the small-pox.

WESTMINSTER HOSPITAL, James-street. This hospital claims the seniority of all others of its kind; it was instituted in the year 1719, at the expence and contribution of several benevolent individuals, "for the relief of the sick and needy from all parts;" and, from their example, many similar works of charity have arisen.

QUAKERS' WORKHOUSE. In Bridewell-walk, Clerkenwell, is a burial ground of inconsiderable size, and near it the remains of the Quakers' Workhouse, which the "New View of London" says, was founded about the year 1692, for the maintenance of fifty decayed people of that persuasion, who were allowed lodging and diet, and employed in their several professions by the governors. It has fallen into decay many years past, and what remains is let to poor occupants at very low rents. According to Maitland, it supported eighteen old men and sixty children, who had 5*l.* apprentice fee. The same institution exists in a new and most commodious building in the Goswell-street road,

near Islington; the house was erected about the year 1786, on a large square of ground belonging to the Brewers' company, which is held by the institution at a rent of 16*l.* a-year for the first ninety years, and the remainder subject to an increase of 34*l.* a-year. It is used for a meeting, which is held monthly on a Friday morning, and for the purpose of a charity-school. Apartments are provided in a neat house facing it, for twelve men and twelve women, being poor and of the society of friends. The number of boys and girls is not limited. Six different meetings in London, together with some legacies and voluntary contributions, support the charity, and provide rewards for those females who preserve the places obtained for them, which are thirty shillings for the first and forty shillings for the second and third years; if they behave with propriety, they are allowed 40*l.* as a marriage portion, and 20*l.* to the boys.

SAINT KATHERINE'S HOSPITAL, Near the Tower, was founded by Matilda of Boulogne, the Queen of King Stephen, earlier than the year 1148; it has been augmented by several queens of England, in whom the patronage has always remained, and this does not abate by a queen's becoming dowager. The original foundress instituted this hospital as a priory for the repose of her son Baldwin and daughter Matilda, and for the maintenance of a master, brothers and sisters, and other poor persons. At the dissolution of religious houses, this was valued at 315*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*, and was not involved in their general destruction, being the only ecclesiastical preferment belonging to the queen consort. During the commonwealth its revenues were also preserved, and one Richard Kent was the preacher there, chosen by the people, who received annually towards his maintenance from the hospital 10*l.*, and from the inhabitants about 45*l.* In 1658, Samuel Slater was appointed the preacher, at a salary of 40*l.*; at present two of the brothers receive 40*l.* each of the sisters 10*l.* and each of the bedeswomen 8*l.* a-year; the rest of the revenues are divided among the masters, brothers, and sisters.

SAINT MARY'S HOSPITAL, Great Ilford, Essex. The hospital at this place, dedicated to the Virgin Mary and Saint Thomas the Martyr, was founded by Adeliza, abbess of Barking, in the reign of King Stephen, for a prior, a warden or master, two priests, and thirteen poor infirm brethren or lepers.

WHITGIFT'S HOSPITAL, Croydon. In 1596, Archbishop Whitgift founded this hospital; it was finished on the 29th
8 of

of September 1599, and endowed with lands for the maintenance of a warden, schoolmaster, and twenty-eight poor brethren and sisters, and a number, not to exceed forty, if the revenues should not admit of it. The schoolmaster, who is also chaplain, is allowed by the statutes 20*l.* per annum, the warden 11*l.*, and the other members 5*l.* each. The nomination of the brethren and sisters was vested by the founder in his successors in the see of Canterbury, whom he appointed also to be visitors. Whenever that see shall happen to be vacant, the rector of Lambeth and the vicar of Croydon are to fill up the places. The persons to be admitted must be sixty years of age at least; inhabitants of Croydon and Lambeth are to be preferred.

DISPENSARIES, LYING-IN AND MEDICAL CHARITIES. On these establishments Mr. Highmore offers the following observations. Among the institutions for relief of the diseases, accidents, and infirmities of the poor, the hospital and the infirmary, as comprising within them every benefit which can result from comfortable accommodation, proper diet, constant attendance, and professional skill, claim in many instances a decided preference. Cases, however, obviously and frequently occur, wherein medical aid may be administered to the indigent with equal efficacy, though at a far more moderate expence, and in a far more eligible manner. The removal of the patient from his own habitation is frequently unnecessary, and often dangerous; whilst that immense multitude of objects which fall under the description of out-patients, cannot obtain substantial relief, but at a cost exceeding the revenues of the most liberally founded hospital, and by a degree of time and attention scarcely compatible with that which is demanded by the more urgent and afflicting circumstances of the patients within. And even of those who are actually admitted as out-patients, a great majority, when, by the aggravation of the disease, they become unable to attend in person, must necessarily be deserted in the very hour of distress and danger.

When dispensaries were first instituted, there was wanting some charitable institution between the hospital and the poorhouse; for the former afforded relief only to the sick, who would become its temporary inhabitants, and whose diseases required confinement and attendance; and the latter was designed to give comfort and protection to the aged, who were destitute of domestic accommodation. Under this impression, it was natural for a humane and generous people to suggest and contrive an intermediate arrangement

that should embrace the requisites to which neither of these would apply, where the poor and industrious mechanic and his family might receive medical advice in all cases, where confinement was not necessary, or where, if it was, the patient had sufficient accommodation at home: such cases, in the number of which those of midwifery form no inconsiderable part, are happily by far the most numerous of the diseases incidental to the human frame. Hence the establishment of *dispensaries* arose, an institution, in the constitution of which the sick, the hurt, and the lying-in woman, can receive assistance, in many cases preferably to a removal. By this system, medical charity has been very widely and profitably extended, in aid of, and by no means in opposition to, or in competition with, hospitals; for dispensaries have been founded with an equal view to relieve both the descriptions of objects above mentioned, by affording medical and surgical assistance to such as are able to apply for it, upon their personal attendance, and to all others at their own habitations. These institutions being exempted from many articles of expence, which fall heaviest upon hospitals, may of course be supported by proportionably smaller contributions; and hence a very numerous body of the public obtain an opportunity of exercising their benevolence in equal measure with those in more affluent circumstances.

The laborious poor are exposed to diseases peculiar to themselves, arising from changes of weather, from their confined and crowded habitations, from unhealthy and sedentary employments, and accidental injuries, and to all these is to be superadded the necessity, to which the opulent are scarcely ever called upon to submit, of pursuing their exertions in their respective employments, while they are labouring under the oppression of disease, or perhaps under the discipline of a course of medicine; to such persons dispensaries are necessary establishments.

The dispensaries in the metropolis are numerous; and beside prescribing for the patients who are able to attend at these institutions, the physicians visit at their own habitations, those of the recommended who are confined by the severity of disease. It is thus that from the eastern extremity of Limehouse to the western at Milbank, and on the north from Islington and Somers Town to the south as far as Lambeth, and, by means of the Greenwich dispensary, to Newington and Peckham, including a space of nearly fifty square miles, a system of medical relief is extended to the poor, unknown in any other part of the globe.

Dr. Lettsom supposes, that the dispensaries have afforded relief to 50,000 poor people annually, one-third of whom, at least, are attended at their own habitations, a mode of relief which keeps the branches of the family from being separated; and affords an opportunity for the wife to nurse the sick husband or child, or the husband to superintend and protect the sick wife, which naturally tends to augment the tender affections. By this mode of conveying relief to the houses of the poor, the expence is trivial indeed, as one guinea, which is an annual subscription of a governor, affords the means of relief to at least ten patients. Hence 50,000 patients are annually relieved for 5000*l.*; a sum not exceeding one-third of the revenue of a single hospital in London, which relieves scarcely 6000 patients in a year.

In addition to the advantages of dispensaries, it may be urged, with truth, that they render less frequent the necessity of parochial relief, and in this way at once prevent an increase of expence to a parish, and keep up, in the mind of the poor, the honest, useful, and laudable spirit of independent industry.

After this ample detail of the scope and benefit of these establishments, nothing more than an enumeration will be necessary, except in a few extraordinary instances.

THE BLOOMSBURY DISPENSARY, No. 62. Great Russell-street. Instituted 1801.

THE CHARITABLE FUND AND DISPENSARY, No. 8. Lilypot-lane. This institution embraces a plan of benevolence different in its principle from most others of a similar kind, which administer to the wants of sickness only, but this professes to administer to all the wants of the sufferers, by superadding to that of medicine and advice, pecuniary aid, such as may be conducive to recovery, as far as its funds will allow.

THE EASTERN DISPENSARY, Alie-street, Whitechapel. Instituted 1782.

THE LONDON ELECTRICAL DISPENSARY, City Road. This dispensary was established in 1793, and the particular object of it is to administer electricity in all complaints in which its application may be useful.

THE ROYAL INFIRMARY FOR THE EYE, Nassau-street. This charity was established in 1808, under the patronage of the King and Queen, the Prince of Wales, and others of the Royal Family, on the representation of Mr. Wathen Phipps, the eminent oculist.

THE LONDON INFIRMARY FOR THE EYE, Charterhouse Square. This institution is similar to the preceding, and was founded in 1808.

THE FINSBURY DISPENSARY, St. John's Square. Established in 1780.

The new Finsbury and central Dispensary, West Smithfield. Instituted in 1786.

THE GENERAL DISPENSARY, Aldersgate-street. Instituted in 1770.

THE LONDON DISPENSARY, Artillery-street, opened in 1777.

THE BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION. For the sole purpose of delivering poor married women at their own habitations. Begun in 1780. The boundaries of this charity, beyond which the midwives are not to go, are the undermentioned distances, viz. Lambeth, Chelsea, Brompton, Knightsbridge, Kensington, Mary-le-bone, Paddington, Tottenham-court, Gray's Inn Lane-end, Islington, City Road, Shoreditch, Bethnal Green, and Whitechapel turnpikes, Ratcliffe Cross, Dockhead, Grange Road, Kent-street, and Kensington turnpikes, and the road from Blackman-street to Westminster Bridge.

THE LYING-IN CHARITY. For delivering poor married women at their own habitations. This humane and useful institution dates its rise in the year 1757. The boundaries are Westminster Bridge, Millbank, Pimlico, Hyde Park Corner, and Tyburn turnpikes, Portman-square, Mary-le-bone, Tottenham-court, Gray's Inn Lane-end, St. John's-street, Pentonville as far as the chapel, and Islington, to Cross-street, inclusive, Goswell-street turnpike to the City Road, and Shoreditch workhouse, Hackney turnpike, Bethnal Green turnpike, near the church, and to the Grove-house, Mile-end Old-town, Limehouse-hole, Rotherhithe church, Grange Road, and Kent-street-end, Blackman-street turnpike, and the road from Blackman-street to Westminster Bridge.

LYING-IN CHARITY, At Tottenham. In August 1791, eight ladies, of the parish of Tottenham High Cross, Middlesex, united in a plan for the relief of their poor neighbours during their lying-in. They began their undertaking by a subscription of 3s. or 3s. 6d. each for the purchase of linen, and afterwards appointed one of their number treasurer and manager; and in order to supply a fund for allowing 5s. toward the payment of a midwife, and 6s. for a nurse for each patient, they agreed to contribute 6d. a-piece weekly. The number of subscribers increased. In the first year they relieved fourteen persons, in the fourth year, sixty-four, and in the seventh year, ninety-four. The society, finding that the sick stood as much in need of assistance as lying-in women,

men, extended its benefit to either without distinction; and, the funds having since considerably increased, a large number of bags of linen has been provided, and the manager is authorized to lend them, as long as the case requires, to all sick persons who are in want throughout the parish, where the disease is not of an infectious nature. A set of linen is lent to every lying-in and sick patient, that receives a ticket from any subscriber, for one month. Eleven shillings is paid to the lying-in patient to defray the charges of midwife and nurse; and the same sum is laid out for each sick person, according to their wants, either in procuring necessary food, coals, or medicine, or, at the discretion of the governess, to be paid them in a weekly allowance. And one of the subscribers is appointed by the rest to preside over and manage the affairs of the charity, subject to the control of an annual meeting. The utility of this plan has already recommended it to the inhabitants of several other places. Charities similar in design, though varying in some particulars, have been established, among other places, at Cambridge, Ipswich, Colchester, Needham, Halstead, Stoke Newington, Edmon-ton, Cheshunt, Ware, Hertford, Woodford, Wanstead, and Walthamstow, &c. and privately by individuals.

THE ST. MARY-LE-BONE GENERAL DISPENSARY, No. 17. Welbeck-street. Instituted in 1785, for giving medicines and advice to the sick poor, and pregnant women, gratis.

THE PUBLIC DISPENSARY, Bishop's-court, Carey-street. Established in 1783.

THE NEW RUPTURE SOCIETY. Founded in 1796.

CITY TRUSS SOCIETY, For the relief of the ruptured poor, No. 10. Grocers'-hall Court, Poultry. Instituted 1807.

SURRY DISPENSARY, Union-street, Southwark. Instituted 2d March 1777.

THE UNIVERSAL MEDICAL INSTITUTION, Tower Hamlets. Instituted A. D. 1792. In addition to all the advantages of a general dispensary, and which it possesses in common with similar establishments, this charity holds out others peculiar to itself. It affords relief by the use of cold, warm, and vapour baths, for relief in cases of suspended animation from drowning, suffocation, &c. Gentlemen of distinguished medical abilities, and who are perfectly acquainted with the most approved mode of treatment in such cases, readily attend to lend their assistance; it comprises also an establishment for vaccination, and women are delivered at their own habitations. The limits for visiting patients at their own habitations extend from the Tower-stairs (by the

river) to Poplar-gut; through Poplar to Stepney-green, across Mile-end, up Red Cow-lane to Camden-row, Bethnal Green; from thence to Shoreditch turnpike, through Norton-falgate, Bishopsgate-street, and Houndsditch, down Jewry-street and Savage-gardens, back to the Tower-stairs.

THE VACCINE DISPENSARIES. 1. *The Vaccine Pock Institution*, Broad-street, Golden-square. 2. *The Royal Jennerian Society*, Salisbury-square. 3. *The London Vaccine Institution*. Conducted by Dr. John Walker, at No. 2, Salisbury-square, and in other places; and, 4. *The National Vaccine establishment*, Leicester-square, formed by Government, and conducted by the principal officers of the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons of London.

THE WESTMINSTER DISPENSARY, Charles-street, Westminster. Established in 1789.

WESTMINSTER GENERAL DISPENSARY, Gerrard-street. Instituted in 1774, under the patronage of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, for the relief of the sick and lame poor, and pregnant women.

COLLEGES. Colleges consist of an entire establishment, upon a more enlarged plan than alms-houses; their subsistence is generally more united; they are governed by a master and other incorporate officers, and meet at one board; and in one instance, the foundation also comprehends the maintenance and education of youth.

BROMLEY COLLEGE, Kent. Bromley College was founded by John Warner, Bishop of Rochester, for the residence and maintenance of twenty widows of loyal and orthodox clergymen. By his will, dated in 1666, he authorized his executors, Sir Orlando Bridgman and Sir P. Warwick, to raise a sum, adequate to the purposes of the building, out of his personal estate, and charged his manor of Swayton with the payment of 450*l.* viz. 50*l.* per annum for the chaplain, and 20*l.* each for the widows. The founder, not having made any provision for repairs, his executors, with consent of his heir at law, charged the manor of Swayton with the further sum of 5*l.* per annum; but, this being thought insufficient, the executors generously gave 100*l.* each, with which a fee-farm rent was purchased; but still this income was found much too small to keep the building in a state of decent repair, and the trustees have been at times under the necessity of soliciting voluntary contributions for that purpose. The fund has since received several further augmentations.

GOD'S GIFT COLLEGE, Dulwich. The founder was Edward Alleyne, Esq., a player of great celebrity, and a contemporary of Shakespeare. He realized a considerable fortune,

fortune, and retiring to Dulwich, where he had purchased an estate, he formed and executed his plan, superintended the erection of his college, lived to see it finished, and spent the remainder of his days in visiting and being visited by some of the most respectable persons in the kingdom. He managed the affairs of the college till his death, not as master, as has been asserted, for he appointed his kinsmen, Thomas and Matthias Alleyne, to be the first master and warden, immediately on completing the foundation, in 1619, though they did not assume the management of its affairs until after his decease. He devoted the college to the maintenance, education, relief, and sustenance of poor and needy people, men, women, and children of the parishes of St. Botolph without, Bishopsgate, London, Saint Saviour's in Southwark, and of that part of the parish of Saint Giles without Cripplegate, London, which is in the county of Middlesex; and of the parish of Camberwell, in Surry. The corporation of this college is lord of the manor of Dulwich, and their estate being much increased by inclosure and other acts, by additional donations, and by the advanced value of their landed estates, while the original number of persons relieved has not been enlarged, a situation in God's Gift College is extremely desirable, and approaches to opulence.

MORDEN COLLEGE, Blackheath. Sir John Morden, Bart., who had raised his fortune as a Turkey merchant, founded this college under the sanction of letters patent from William III., dated the 4th of November, 11 W. III. He placed in it during his life time, twelve decayed merchants; and by his will, dated 15th of October 1702, he devised all his real and copyhold estates to the Turkey Company; in trust, after the decease of his lady, for the support of the college, and for the maintenance of poor, aged, and decayed merchants of England, whose fortunes had been ruined by the perils of the sea, and other unavoidable accidents; allowing to each 20*l.* per annum. They were afterwards, owing to the change of the times, advanced to 40*l.* The pensioners must be single men, either bachelors or widowers, members of the Church of England, and not less than fifty years of age; they are provided with medicines, coals, candles, and washing; the attendance of servants, and of a barber, and 2*l.* per month. The vacancies are filled up once a year, by the governors of the Turkey Company, by election; and provision was made, by the founder's will, that if this company should fail, trustees should be chosen out of the directors of the East India Company.

Company. The treasurer and the chaplain reside in the college, and there are apartments for thirty pensioners.

SION COLLEGE, London-wall. The ancient site of this building was a nunnery, which, having fallen to decay, was purchased by William Elfyng, citizen and mercer, and converted into a college and hospital, called from his name Elfyng Spital, near Cripplegate, for a warden and four priests, and one hundred sick persons, in the year 1329; but, in the year 1340, he changed the college into an Austin priory, valued at 193*l.*, and, at his request, the priests were decreed to be canons regular of the order of St. Augustin, of whom he became the prior, subject to the visitation of the dean and chapter of Saint Paul's; the priory was afterward granted to Sir John Williams, master of the jewel office to Henry VIII., who, with Sir Rowland Hayward, inhabited it when it was destroyed by fire. In 1623, it was rescued from oblivion by Doctor Thomas White, who, by his will, dated the 1st of October of that year, bequeathed 3000*l.* towards purchasing and building a college and alms-house on the ancient site. The executors of his will, Simpson and Kelynge, purchased the whole for 2450*l.* of Robert Parkhurst, alderman, and erected the present college. It is held by two charters of incorporation, dated July 3, 6 Car. I., and June 20, 16 Car. II. By these authorities a president, two deans, and four assistants, with all the rectors and vicars, lecturers and curates, of the city and suburbs, were constituted to be a corporation, and alms-houses for ten men and ten women were also established. Dr. White had endowed these by a rent-charge of 120*l.* per annum, besides 40*l.* per annum for the common charges of the college. The Bishop of London is visitor. In addition to the founder's benevolence, the college holds a farm in Hertfordshire by the devise of Brewer, in 1684.

ALMS-HOUSES. In a former part of this volume (see p. 447.) an account was given of the sums annually expended in charity by the principal companies of the city. In the following list the situation and scope of their alms-houses alone will be mentioned, and an enumeration follows of the other principal establishments of the same class near the metropolis.

CLOTHWORKERS. There are two sets of alms-houses belonging to this company, at Alms-lane, Lower-street, Islington; the one for ten men of the company, and the other for the same number of women, founded in 1648, by J. Heath. And they are invested with the trust of another, founded by Lady Anne Packington, in 1560, in Whitefriars, for

for eight poor women. They are also trustees for the alms-house at Friern-Barnet.

COOPERS. The alms-houses vested in this company are situated at Ratcliffe, and were founded for the reception of six of their poor members, in 1613, by Toby Wood, Esq.

DRAPERS. Among the charities, the administration of which is vested in the drapers company, is a very ancient one, established on the south west side of the town of Greenwich, where the roads branch off to London and Lewisham; it is an hospital consisting of twenty small tenements with gardens, which stand very low, and are separated by a dwarf wall from the London road; it was founded and endowed A.D. 1576, by William Lambard, author of the Perambulation of Kent, with the title of "Queen Elizabeth's College," for twenty poor persons: he committed it to the trust of the master of the rolls (for the time being) and the drapers' company. It is said to be the first hospital which was founded by a protestant. The drapers' company are also the trustees for the management of the alms-houses of Francis Bancroft, citizen and draper, mentioned hereafter. The drapers have concern in another alms-house, in Mile-end road, founded in 1698, by John Pernell, for four poor drapers' widows, and four widows of seamen, belonging to the parish of Alpney, who have been in the service of the East India Company; they receive a pension of 4*l.* each, 1*l.* for a gown, and 1*l.* for coals. They have also an alms-house for four men and eight women, founded by John Walter, in 1651, on the south side of the road leading from Westminster to Blackman-street, in the parish of Newington, Surry, which has the privilege of appointing six of its own parishioners; they receive 5*s.* each monthly, and half a chaldron of coals, to which the parish officers add a weekly pension as they see fit. The remainder are appointed by the company. And also another of the same founder, in 1651, at Newington Butts, for sixteen poor men and women; and a third, of the same founder, in 1658, in Old-street, for eight poor widows. They are likewise invested with the trust of an alms-house for twelve poor persons, at Bromley, in Middlesex, founded by John Edmonson, Esq., in 1706. And also, conjointly with the parish of Shoreditch, another in Kingland road, for twelve single men and women, founded in 1713, by Samuel Harmar. And also of another endowed in 1535, by Sir John Milbourne, lord mayor in 1521, in Woodroffe-lane, Crutched-friars, for fifteen poor drapers.

DYERS.

DYERS. The alms-houses vested in this company were founded in White's Alley, Holborn, but have been long since removed to the City-road. In 1776, the company erected an alms-house on the south side of the City-road, for sixteen decayed members, with their wives or widows. They have also another alms-house for ten decayed members, in St. John-street, near Brick-lane, Spital-fields.

FISHMONGERS. Besides exhibitions and nominations to various schools and colleges, with other patronage, the alms-houses of this company are ninety-four in number, viz. forty-two at Newington, Surry, called St. Peter's Hospital, founded by letters patent of James I., in 1618; forty at Jesus's Hospital, at Bray, Berks, founded by William Goddard, Esq.; and twelve at Harrietham, in Kent, founded by Mark Quested, Esq.

GOLDSMITHS. Sir Martin Bowes founded an alms-house in Woolwich for five poor widows, and vested it in the care of this company.

GROCERS. This company maintain an alms-house upon their estate in Northamptonshire.

HABERDASHERS. Beside the distribution of many charitable gifts and estates, this company has Aske's Hospital, founded by Robert Aske, Esq., an alderman of London, in the year 1692, at the upper end of Pitfield-street, in Hexton Liberty, in the parish of Saint Leonard, Shoreditch, for twenty poor men of the company of haberdashers, and as many poor boys.

LEATHERSELLERS. They have an alms-house for six poor men and their wives, founded by Christopher Ayre, in White's Alley, Coleman-street; another for four men and three women, founded by John Hasilwood, in 1544, in little St. Helen's, Bishopsgate; and another for six men and their wives in Hart-street, Cripplegate, founded in 1612, by Robert Rogers.

MERCHANT TAYLORS. They have alms-houses near the west end of Rosemary-lane, for twenty-six poor widows of deceased members, who receive a yearly pension, with a chaldron of coals; and a gown every third year. They have also another alms-house, on Tower-hill, appropriated to the comfort of fourteen poor sole women, who receive pensions. By Dr. White's will this company send eight pensioners to Sion College alms-houses. They are also vested with the trust of alms-houses, at Lee, in Kent, founded by C. Boone, Esq.

SKINNERS. The alms-houses of this company adjoin those of the Trinity House, on the north side of Mile-end road,

road, and were founded by Lewis Newbury, in 1698, for twelve poor widows, who receive an allowance of 18*l.* per annum each. The company is also vested with the trust of the alms-houses in Great St. Helen's, Bishopsgate, for six men or women, founded in 1539, by Lady Hollis, and Mrs. Alice Smith, widow, and for six poor men of the company, founded by Sir Andrew Judd, knight, citizen, and skinner, which were rebuilt in 1729.

VINTNERS. Their alms-houses, which stand on the north side of Mile-end road, were founded by the company for the use of twelve widows of deceased members, who receive 5*s.* 3*d.* per week each, a chaldron of coals, and about 40*s.* at certain times yearly. And another at Highgate for the like number of widows.

TRINITY COMPANY. The alms-houses of the Trinity company, on the north side of Mile-end road, were founded in 1695, by the corporation, on a piece of ground given to them for that purpose by Captain Henry Mudd, who was an elder brother. They are twenty-eight in number, and devoted to the residence of decayed commanders of ships, or mates or pilots, and their wives or widows, whose pensions are 18*l.* per annum, and one chaldron and a half of coals.

BANCROFT'S ALMS-HOUSES AND SCHOOL, Mile-end. Francis Bancroft was the grandson of Archbishop Bancroft; his circumstances becoming much reduced, he was engaged for many years as one of the lord mayor's officers, during which time he acquired a fortune of 28,000*l.* in real and personal estate, which he bequeathed by his will, dated March 18, 1727, to the company of drapers, in trust, for the purchase of a site of ground for erecting and endowing an alms-house, with convenient apartments, for twenty-four alms men, poor old members of that company, a chapel, and a school-room for one hundred boys, with two dwelling houses for the masters of the school: he directed for each alms-man 8*l.*, with half a chaldron of coals, and a gown of baize every third year; and the school boys to be clothed, and taught to read, write, and account, for which the masters were to receive salaries of 30*l.* each, in addition to their dwelling houses: he also bequeathed 20*l.* yearly for coals and candles, for the use of the masters and schools, beside books, paper, pens, and ink; 5*l.* for a dinner to the committee of the court of assistants of the drapers' company at their annual visitation; 3*l.* 10*s.* for two half yearly sermons to be preached at the parish churches of St. Helen, Bishopsgate, and St. Michael, Cornhill, or elsewhere, in
com-

commemoration of the founder, out of which the minister is to have 20s., the reader 10s., and the clerk and sexton 2s. 6d. each, at which the alms-men are to be present, and the boys also, who are to be catechised by the reader; and when placed as apprentices, 4l. to be given with each of them; but if they are only put to service, they are to receive fifty shillings for clothing. In 1735, the company, pursuant to their trust, erected a school at Mile-end, and by their good management, the pensions of the alms-men have been increased to 18l. each, and 100 boys admitted on the foundation.

BETHNAL-GREEN ALMS-HOUSES AND SCHOOL. Were founded by Mr. Thomas Parmiter in 1722, and in consequence of an addition by Mrs. Eliza Carter, and the augmentation of an annual subscription and other aids, six alms-men receive stipends, and thirty boys, and the like number of girls, are clothed, educated, and put out apprentices.

BOONE'S ALMS-HOUSES, Lee, Kent. In 1623, Charles Boone, Esq., and Mary his wife, founded an alms-house, with a chapel adjoining, and a school-house for six poor persons and a school mistress, endowing it with lands and rents then producing 57l. per annum. The founders committed the care of this charity to the merchant taylors' company, appointing the annual income to be thus disposed of; to a chaplain 10l., to a clerk 2l., to the school mistress 9l., to the pensioners 15l. 12s., (being 1s. per week each,) for fuel 4l. 10s., for clothing 4l. 10s., books and other necessaries for the children, and books for the chapel, 2l. The pensioners to be men or women chosen from amongst the poorest people of Lee, such as have lived orderly, and supported themselves by honest labour in their younger days, and can say the Lord's Prayer, Creed, and Ten Commandments, or are willing to learn them within two months after their admission. The present revenue of this charity is 73l. per annum; the chaplain's salary is now 12l., the mistress's 9l., (with 2l. 2s. for fuel,) the clerk's 4l., the pensioners have 2s. a week each, besides a small allowance of fuel and clothes, as directed by the founders.

CARON HOUSE, Vauxhall. Founded by Noel Lord Caron, in 1622, for seven poor women of Lambeth, aged 60. The dowager Lady Gower, in 1773, added a legacy of 1100l.

EAST INDIA COMPANY'S ALMS-HOUSES, Poplar. This company established, about the time of their earliest charter, a charity at Poplar, in the parish of St. Dunstan, Stepney, for

for the relief of the widows of mates and seamen, who had died in their service. This building, becoming decayed, was taken down about the year 1801, and a handsome and complete foundation erected upon the site, consisting of two quadrangles; each of these two lower squares containing thirteen houses for the residence of petty officers, or their widows. Each pensioner receives about 9*l.* or 10*l.* yearly. A third square has been added about two years since for pensioners of the same description. The upper square consists of eighteen houses, with a garden to each, which are appropriated to the residence of the widows of captains and mates, who receive yearly pensions of from 30*l.* to 80*l.*, according to the rank of their deceased husbands; all have coals and meat, and many obtain permission for their children to dwell with them. A surgeon is retained, at the company's expence, to attend the whole establishment; and a resident chaplain is appointed by the directors, at a yearly salary.

EDWARDS'S ALMS-HOUSES, Christchurch, Surry. Founded 1717. They are three in number, and a large fund being provided for other distributions, the residue affords a comfortable subsistence to the tenants.

MONOX'S ALMS-HOUSES, Walthamstow. George Monox, alderman of London, erected thirteen alms-houses on the north side of the church yard, at Walthamstow, for eight men and five women, with a school-house and apartments for a master.

OVERMAN'S ALMS-HOUSES, Montague-clofe. Mrs. Alice Shaw Overman, of Newington, Surry, by deed, duly inrolled, founded eight rooms to be erected on part of her freehold estate, in Montague-clofe, Southwark, for the free residence of eight single women, of whom four are to be widows, and four maidens, of fifty years of age, or upwards, members of the Church of England, and without limitation as to the place from whence they are to be selected, so that no preference is given to their parish.

STAFFORD'S ALMS-HOUSES, Gray's-Inn-lane. At the north-east end of Gray's-Inn-lane, there was formerly a large field called Liquorpond-field, on part of which the street which now bears that name has been since built; this field extended along the east side of the lane, and became partly the property of Alexander Stafford, Esq. who was born at Froome Selwood, in Somersetshire, but resided in High Holborn. In 1613, he allotted half an acre of this field, near the road, for the purpose of erecting an alms-house for ten poor unmarried persons, inhabitants of the parish

parish of St. Andrew, Holborn, and by his will, dated the 10th of May 1651, he declared the particular trusts of this and other charities; he devised to ten persons, whom he calls his beloved friends in Christ, and his good neighbours, this alms-house then newly erected, with the garden adjoining, in trust for ever, for the habitation and dwelling of ten poor people unmarried, viz. four men and six women, all of them to be elected out of the parishioners and inhabitants of that part of St. Andrew which lieth without the bars there, and all of them to be of honest life and conversation, and such as are religious, and frequent the church. He also gave them 4*l.* each per annum. In consequence of the improvement of the estates, and the diminished value of money, they are now allowed a pension of 16*l.* per annum each, with a gown once in two years, and an annual gift of one chaldron of coals to every pensioner, and two chaldrons among the whole ten.

To the foregoing it may be sufficient to add a general list of other alms-houses, as follows:

A GENERAL LIST OF OTHER ALMS-HOUSES.

Founders	Date.	Place.	Objects.
Edward Alleyn	1614	Lamb-alley, Bishopsgate	- 10 Men and women.
	1616	Pest House-lane, Old-street	- Ditto.
	1616	Soap-yard, Deadman's-place, Southwark	- Ditto.
Susan Amyas	- 1655	George-yard, Old-street	- 8 Single men or women.
Ann Askew	- 1540	Beech-lane	- 8 Widows of drapers.
S. Atkinson	- 1680	Edgware	- 4 Poor women.
Allen Badger	1698	Hoxton	- 6 Ditto.
Rev.—Baremere, Presbyterian minister	- 1701	Alms-house-yard, Hoxton	- 8 Ditto.
George Baron	1682	Elbow-lane	- 15 Ditto.
Lady Bateman	1709	Tooting	- 6 Women.
Bayning's, by Paul Viscount Sudbury	1631	Gunpowder-alley, Crutched-friars, used as an alms-house for the parish	- 10 Poor housekeepers.
—Bermeter	—	St. John-street, Bethnal-green	6 Women.
Thomas Browne	1734	Kingland-road	- 12 Freemen and widows of framework knitters.
Mrs. Bowry	- 1721	Stratford	- Sailors or widows in the East India service.
Nicholas Butler	1675	Little Chapel-st. Westminster	2 Men and their wives.
Lawrence Camp	—	Wormwood-street	- 6 Poor persons.
Ditto	- 1612	Friern, Barnet	- 12 Ditto.
Lord Caron	- 1623	Kingston-road, Vauxhall	- 7 Poor women.
W. Cleve, Alderman	- 1667	Kingston	- 12 Persons.
Mrs. Cobourn	—	Stepney	- Sailors' widows of the East India Company.

Sir

Founders.	Date.	Place.	Objects.
Sir Charles Cotterell -	—	Chapel-yard, Hog-lane, Soho	8 Sailors' widows of the East India Company.
Thomas Cure	1584	College Church-yard, Deadman's-place, Southwark	16 Men and women.
Sir Abra. Dawes	1630	Putney	12 Persons.
Robert Daniel	1681	Hendon	6 Men and 4 women of 50 years.
J. Davis	1793	Islington	8 Widows.
Captain Dewy	1634	Hog-lane, Soho	
Cornelius Van Dun - reg. Eliz.		St. Margaret's, Westminster	20 Widows.
Dutch alms houses, by Samuel Shepherd -	—	White's-alley, Moorfields	28 Ancient women of Holland.
Judge Fuller	1592	Old-street, at Hoxton	12 Poor women.
Ditto	1592	Mile-end	12 Old men of Stepney parish.
J. Fuller	1529	Eagle-place, Mile-end-road	12 Poor men of 50 years.
Richard Gallard	—	Golden lane	13 Men and women.
Nicholas Garrett	1729	Porter's fields, Norton-falgate, by the Weavers' company	6 Poor weavers.
Sir Tho. Gresham	1575	Broad-street, by the lord mayor and commonalty of London	8 Poor men.
Mrs. Graham	1686	Crown-st., or Hog-lane, Soho	4 Clergymen's widows, their maiden daughters, or other gentlewomen.
— Haw	1686	Bow-lane, Poplar	6 Widows.
Emery Hill	1677	Petty France, Westminster	3 Men and wives.
Ditto	1708	Rocheſter-row, Tothillfields	6 Ditto, and 6 widows.
Alice Hinton	1732	Plow alley, Barbican	12 Widows of Cripple-gate parish.
Charles Hopton	1730	Christchurch, Surry, by the minister two churchwardens, and ten other trustees	26 Poor men, who have been housekeepers.
Henry Jackson	1685	Deadman's-place, Southwark	2 Poor women.
Thomas Iles	—	Fulham	4 Poor women.
Sir John Jolles	1673	Bromley, Middlesex	8 Widows.
Judith Kifford	1705	Tothill side, Westminster	2 Gentlewomen.
Lady Alley	—	King street, Westminster	4 Women.
Henry VII.	—	Little Almonry, Westminster, by dean and chapter	12 Poor watermen and their wives, who receive 2s. 4d. each couple, and a purple gown every year; and at the burial of a duke, marquis, or their ladies, in the Abbey, 26s. 6d.; and for that of an earl, baron, or their ladies, 10s. 6d.
Gerard Van Lee	—	Narrow-wall, Lambeth	8 Poor men.
Viscountess Lumley	1672	Pesthouse-fields, Old-street	6 Poor women of Aldgate and Bishopsgate parishes.

Founders.	Date.	Place.	Objects.
William Meggs	1558	Whitechapel-road	12 Poor persons.
W. Methwold	1652	Kensington	6 Women.
Henry Monger	1669	Well-street, Hackney	6 Old men of 60 years.
Richard Morrel	1705	Near Nag's-head, Hackney-road	6 Poor goldsmiths.
Lady Elizabeth Morrice	1551	Old Jewry, by Armourers' company	9 Widows of armourers.
Sir Ambrose Nicolas	1775	Monkwell-street	12 Widows of salters.
Lady Alice Owen	1610	South end of Islington, by Brewers' company*	10 Widows of Islington.
Rev. James Palmer, B. D.	1654	Tothill-side, Westminster	12 Poor men and women.
George Palyn	—	Pesthouse-row, Old-street, by Girdlers' company	6 Poor girdlers.
John Pernell	1698	Mile-end	4 Poor drapers' widows, and 12 seamen's widows to be presented by Old Stepney parish.
Lady Pheasant	1744	Tottenham	3 Widows.
Thomas Philpot	1680	Eltham	4 for Eltham, and 2 for Chislehurst.
Sir W. Powell	1680	Fulham	12 Widows.
Mary Ramsey	1596	Horn's-yard, Cloth-fair	3 Poor women.
John Richmond	1559	Goose-alley, Seacoal-lane, by Armourers' company	8 Poor old men and women.
Dame Alice Row	1702	Spring-street, Shadwell, Mile-end-road	Poor seamen and widows.
Ditto	—	Mile-end-road	4 Men and 4 women.
David Smith and Sir Tho. Fitch	1584	St Peter's-hill, Thames street, by Christ's Hospital	6 Widows turned of 56 years.
J. Smith	1656	Leyton	8 Persons allotted to Spitalfields, Bethnal-green, Limehouse, & St. George's, East.
Earl of Southampton and Henry Carter	1656	} Monmouth-street	20 Parishioners of St. Giles in the fields.
Henry Sprot	1674		
Henry Sprot	1709	College Church-yard, Dead-man's-place, Southwark	2 Poor old men.
Mary Squires	1795	Walthamstow	6 Widows of tradesmen of church of England.
Rev. W. Spurlowe, D. D.	1666	Back lane, Hackney	6 Poor widows.
— Underwood	1736	Lamb-alley, Bishopsgate	16 Old women.
R. Warren and T. Sanney	1485	} Finchley	6 Poor persons.
	1509		

* An arrow from the bow of an archer, exercising in Islington fields, having pierced the high crown of the hat of the foundress, she raised this alms-house as a votive offering of gratitude for her protection.

Founders.	Date.	Place.	Objects.
William Watson	1509	Near Shoreditch, by Weavers' company	12 Widows of weavers.
Sir J. Wollaston	1656	Hornsey	12 Houses and schools.
and			
E. Pannerfort	1720		
Mary Westby	1749	Hoxton causey	10 Poor women.
George Whitcher	1683	Tothill-fields	6 Poor old persons.
Sir Richard Whittington, thrice lord mayor of London	1413	College hill, by Mercers' company	13 Poor men.
J. Wilde	1662	Edmonton	12 Aged persons, and one poor scholar, Cambridge.
Toby Wood	1613	Ratcliffe, by Coopers' company	6 Coopers.
Dr. Tho. Wood, bishop of Litchfield and Coventry	1692	Clapton	10 Poor ancient widows.
Henry Young	1694	College Church-yard, Southwark	2 Poor women.

CHARITIES FOR INSTRUCTION. Establishments of this kind, as they are most necessary, and of obvious utility, are also very numerous, not only in the metropolis, but in all parts of the British empire. Several of the most eminent of these foundations have been described in the early pages of this volume. A copious enumeration might be made from the work of Mr. Highmore, but the notice will be confined to a few of the most remarkable which had not before been specified.

ALDGATE SCHOOL. This school consists of one hundred children, sixty boys and forty girls, who are clothed and educated. It is remarkable as being the first protestant parish school which was established in London, and the first which adopted the Rev. Dr. Bell's new Madras system of education. It was instituted about the year 1688.

THE ASYLUM, or *House of Refuge for Orphan Girls*, Lambeth. This charity owes its establishment to that vigilant and active magistrate, the late Sir John Fielding; who had long observed, that "though the laws of this kingdom had provided a parish settlement for every person by birth, parentage, apprenticeship, &c. yet many cases continually occurred in which such settlements are difficult to be ascertained;" and therefore he and others were solicitous to remove, in part, this source of female wretchedness. By their exertions, and the continued endeavours of those who have hitherto conducted the plan, their benevolent intentions have been rewarded by the most signal success. Two hun-

dred deserted females are daily sheltered and protected from vice and want, supplied with food and raiment proper for them, and taught whatever can render them useful in their situation, or comfortable and happy in themselves. Carefully instructed in the principles of religion, in reading, writing, needle-work, and household business, and trained to habits of industry and regularity, a supply of diligent and sober domestics is formed. The establishment is under the government of a committee of subscribers, annually elected. No child can be admitted who is under the age of nine or above the age of twelve years. Nor until approved of by the committee. They are bound apprentices for seven years, at the age of fifteen or sooner, as domestic servants in reputable families in Great Britain. The committee, in gratitude to the Rev. Dr. Bell, have adopted his admirable mode of education at the Asylum. It was introduced by the recommendation of his royal highness the duke of Cambridge, the president, with the approbation of his grace the archbishop of Canterbury.

SCHOOL FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND, Saint George's-fields, Surry. The object of the school for the indigent blind is to instruct persons of that description in a trade, by which they may be able to provide, either wholly or in part, for their subsistence. Subscriptions were first solicited for the institution in December 1799; but so much time was unavoidably spent in procuring a proper place for the school, in providing accommodations for the reception of the pupils, and in other necessary arrangements, that very few admissions could take place till toward the end of the following year.

During a period of little more than eight years, it returned thirty persons to their families, able to earn according to their several abilities, from 7s. to 18s. per week. It has been able to increase the number of its pupils from fifteen males, with which it commenced in 1800, to thirty-five males and seventeen females; and it has established a trade, from which it derives a profit of nearly 600l. per annum in aid of its expences. All objects under twelve are now deemed absolutely inadmissible; but no age above eighteen is considered as a disqualification, while the strength remains unimpaired, and the fingers are flexible.

The articles at present manufactured in the school are, shoemakers' thread, fine and coarse thread, window sash line, and clothes line, (of a peculiar construction, and made on a machine adapted to the use of blind persons,) by the females;

males; and window sash line, clothes line, hampers, and wicker baskets, rough and white bear mats, and fine mats for hearths and carriages, by the males. A large quantity of fine thread has been wove, by order of the committee, into cloth, of good quality, specimens of which may be seen at the school, and the coarse is worked up into the clothes line, and window sash line. In the manufacture of these different kinds of line, a very material improvement has taken place since it was commenced, and specimens of those articles have been approved by architects of the first eminence. The sale of baskets, bear mats, and white and coloured fine mats, at the school, has also very much increased, and orders are constantly executed by the pupils to a great extent: a large assortment of baskets of different sorts and sizes, and of rough, and white, and coloured bear mats, is always kept at the school for sale, all excellently made.

The pupils are only kept in the school till they have attained a sufficient knowledge of their trade; which, in general, where there is no want of diligence or capacity, will be in about three years; they are then discharged to make room for others, with a portion of their earnings, by way of encouragement, and a set of tools; and many have already been returned to their friends grateful for the instruction they have received, during their continuance in the school, in religion and morality, and qualified, by the skill they have acquired, to contribute in a great degree towards their maintenance.

THE BLUE-COAT SCHOOL, Tothill-fields. In the parish of St. Margaret, Westminster, there are, in addition to the usual parochial school, three establishments for the education of poor children, by distinct charters and endowments; viz. the Blue-coat Hospital, and the Green-coat and Grey-coat Hospitals. This school was instituted in 1688; its plan was to educate boys in the doctrines of the protestant faith, according to the Church of England; the encouragement which it received, almost immediately, enabled its founders to unite with it, in 1714, a school for girls. It has proceeded regularly upon its original principle, and there are now fifty-two boys and thirty-four girls upon this foundation.

THE GREEN-COAT HOSPITAL. Several inhabitants of the city of Westminster having resolved to settle a house or hospital, like that of Christ's in the city of London, where poor orphans might not only be maintained with all the necessaries of life, but likewise for their future good and that

of the public, be instructed in manual arts, upon application to Charles I., he, by his letters patent of the 16th of November 1633, incorporated them by the appellation of the "Governors of the Hospital of Saint Margaret, Westminster, of the foundation of King Charles;" to consist of twenty governors, inhabitants of that city, to have perpetual succession, with a right of electing governors for supplying vacancies, and to purchase lands, &c. in mortmain, to the value of 500*l.* per annum. But the civil war breaking out soon after, the design was in some respects suppressed, until, by the charitable benefactions of Charles II. and others, the vested estate was raised to above 300*l.* per annum; by fines paid to the dean and chapter of Westminster on the renewing of leases, it consisting chiefly of church lands, the annual income was considerably reduced; still, by casual donations the purposes of the hospital have been effected, and the school is maintained for the benefit of the children of parents inhabiting the parish of St. Margaret, Westminster, and is situate in Tothill-fields, near the Grey-coat School.

THE GREY-COAT HOSPITAL. In 1698 a charity-school was erected in Tothill-fields, in the parish of St. Margaret, Westminster, for the education of poor children, by the name of the "Grey-coat School," from the colour of the children's uniform. In April 1706, the trustees were incorporated by Queen Anne. In September 1739, a mathematical school was erected that boys might be instructed in navigation, and fitted for the sea service. There are at this time in the school ninety poor children, who are clothed, instructed, and maintained in lodging, washing, and board; they are carefully educated in the principles of the christian religion according to the Church of England, and publicly examined upon the exposition of the church catechism or liturgy every Sunday evening at 7 o'clock.

THE CORPORATION FOR RELIEF OF POOR WIDOWS AND CHILDREN OF CLERGYMEN. The Reformation (favourable as it was to the protestant religion) did not make so competent and independent a provision for the inferior clergy as could have been wished; for many livings, being stripped of great part of their tythes, the incomes are inadequate to the necessary demands of life. An indulgence, likewise, then first granted, became eventually a considerable burthen to them; for the reformed clergy being allowed to marry upon their small emoluments, poverty in consequence, in many cases, became not only their own lot, but too often the lot of a numerous offspring. In the reign of Charles II.,

a society was established by the royal charter, dated 1st July 1678, under the name of "the Corporation for the Relief of poor Widows and Children of Clergymen." Since the date of this charter, the revenues having increased by various benefactions, the corporation represented the same by petition to King George I., who, on the 16th of December 1714, granted his licence to enable them to make further purchases and acquisitions, not exceeding 5000*l.* per annum, and the subsequent augmentations have enabled the corporation to extend its bounty to many indigent but respectable widows.

SONS OF THE CLERGY. The lastmentioned is not properly a charity for instruction, but it was introduced here, as in connexion with the present. Notwithstanding the relief afforded by that institution, many families of clergymen were too burthensome for the widows to maintain. The consideration of this circumstance gave rise to that humane institution, "the Stewards of the Feast of the Sons of the Clergy;" by the assistance of which many poor children of clergymen are put apprentice, and are thereby happily provided with the means of becoming useful members of the community. These charities, however generous and extensive in their views, were yet many times defeated in their intentions, by children being offered who were too young to partake of the benefit they could afford; a number of gentlemen, therefore, in 1749, formed themselves into a body, under the name of "a Society of Stewards and Subscribers for maintaining and educating poor Orphans of Clergymen till of age to be put apprentice." This establishment, happily increasing as it became more generally known, has now attained a considerable degree of prosperity. This society, since its institution in 1749, has received into its schools more than seven hundred children of both sexes; most of whom have been put apprentice, or otherwise provided for; the strictest care having been previously taken of their morals, and of their advancement and improvement in useful learning.

THE WIDOWS AND CHILDREN OF CLERGYMEN IN THE DIOCESE OF LONDON. In addition to the foregoing useful and necessary charities, the London clergy, to their great honour, have subjoined another. A meeting was held by these gentlemen on the 12th of February 1791, when it was agreed that a committee should be appointed to give a more extensive effect to the institution for the relief of widows and children of the clergy of London, Westminster, and the county of Middlesex. A similar institution has been estab-

lished in Essex, and that part of Herts, which is in the diocese of London.

ASYLUM FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, Kent-road. The number of indigent deaf and dumb persons in this country, unfortunately far exceeds what at the first suggestion of this charity was supposed, and experience has proved this fact beyond question, by the number of candidates at every election, which far exceeds the vacancies to be supplied. The assistance here afforded to this imbecility remains no longer problematical, and may be seen by visiting the asylum: where it will be found that those who once were deaf and dumb, and ignorant, are now receiving a course of moral and religious instruction, and enabled to speak, read, write, cypher, and comprehend the meaning and grammatical arrangement of words; and also to understand and practice the arts of mechanism and handicraft, so as to carry on several manufactories. A list of the pupils' names, and the stations of their parents, is published annually, to shew that they really are objects of charity.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL, Lamb's Conduit-fields. Sometime in the reign of Queen Anne a scheme was projected for instituting an hospital for foundlings, and, for want of due exertions, it was abandoned; but several persons, still expecting the day when it should be renewed, bequeathed legacies toward its establishment. In 1713, Mr. Addison, in No. 105. of the Guardian, directed the public attention toward it, but without effect; and it was nearly ten years afterwards that Mr. Thomas Coram, the master of a trading vessel to the American colonies, a man singularly endowed with active and disinterested benevolence, undertook to establish it, and, after the labour of seventeen years, succeeded. Having obtained a charter of incorporation, the governors, in 1742, applied for an act, confirming the charter, with further powers, and an exemption from parochial jurisdiction and interference, and providing that all their lands and houses used or converted into the hospital, or on which it should be erected, should, so long as it continued in the possession of the corporation, be rated in such proportion as it was in 1739, and not at a higher value, notwithstanding any improvements; and that they might not be prevented from erecting and enjoying such buildings as might be convenient, all corporate bodies and others, under any legal disabilities, were empowered to sell and convey, or demise, subject to the approbation of the great seal; and the purchase-money to be re-invested for the same uses. The corporation were empowered to
receive,

receive, maintain, and educate as many children as they should think fit, and that any person might bring any child whatsoever to the hospital to be so received, &c. if the corporation *should think proper to receive them*; but that no parish officer should stop, molest, or disturb any person bringing any such child to, or returning from the hospital, under a penalty of 2*l.*; that no parish officer should have any authority in the hospital, nor inquire into the birth or settlement of any children there, nor place them out apprentice, nor do any other act except that of collecting any parliamentary taxes. That no children, nurses, or servants should gain any settlement in that parish, nor any surplice fees be payable for baptism or burial of any of the children, these offices being performed by their own minister only, and no other person should be obliged to perform them. The corporation provide a burial place, and are not entitled to the use of any parochial church-yard. They are also empowered to detain and employ the children in any sort of labour or manufacture, or in the sea service, till the males shall attain the age of twenty-four years, and the females twenty-one or be married, or to bind them apprentices, or to place them out as servants or mariners, or to hire or let them out to work and labour, and to receive the profit, and to give them such reasonable correction as they may think proper.

In October 1740, the committee had been authorised to purchase of the earl of Salisbury the two fields on the northern side of Ormond-street, as an eligible situation; his lordship declined any treaty unless all his land, extending to Gray's Inn-lane, and comprising fifty-six acres, was included in the purchase, and named 7000*l.* as a price for the whole: the earl afterward liberally obviated the difficulties on this point by a donation of 500*l.* The general court accepted these terms, and gave orders for a completion of the contract.

It being at first thought impracticable to procure a sufficient number of healthy wet-nurses, an endeavour was made to bring up some of the children by hand, but experience being in favour of their being wet-nursed in the country, the committee determined to send all children into the country, to remain there until three years old, and the infants to be wet-nursed only.

The purchase of Lord Salisbury's land having been completed, and benefactions for the intended building having flowed in with a liberal current, the corporation proceeded toward erecting an hospital on their new estate; and on the

16th of September 1742, the foundation-stone of the western wing was laid, and the building begun upon a design prepared by Mr. Jacobsen, one of the governors and first benefactors; the estimate amounted to 6555*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.*

The first anniversary was held in the ensuing spring, the western wing was finished, and the houses previously occupied for the charity in Hatton-garden, delivered up in October 1745. In the following March, a subscription was opened for building the chapel. Mr. Jacobsen's estimate was reduced to 4195*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.*, but it cost in the whole 6490*l.*, which was less than the subscriptions. In 1749, (at the instance of Mr. Emerson, one of the governors, who afterward bequeathed to the hospital the residue of his estates, amounting to upward of 11,000*l.*;) the general committee, in order that the girls might be kept separate from the boys, was authorised to proceed to the building of the eastern wing, which, together with the treasurer's house, was ready for habitation in 1752. The whole building was originally calculated to hold four hundred children, and the talents and public spirit of several artists contributed to its embellishment, among whom were Mr. Hogarth, Mr. Hayman, Mr. Highmore, and Rysbrack. More solid benefit was derived from the benevolence of Handel, who, upon the building of the chapel, gave an organ, and the benefit of his oratorio the Messiah, the performance of which he conducted himself; this he repeated for several years, which produced to the charity 6700*l.*, and by his will he bequeathed to it his property in the music; after his death, in 1759, Smith conducted these oratorios there, but becoming at last unproductive, they were discontinued.

Before the end of 1752, the hospital had received one thousand and forty children, of whom five hundred and fifty-nine were then in its protection, and the annual expence was not less than 5000*l.*, far exceeding the income, which did not then amount to more than 1050*l.*; a reduction of their number by an order was proposed, but not adopted, for in 1754 they consisted of six hundred; the governors therefore, by petition to parliament, stated the whole of their transactions, and submitted their case to consideration. The House of Commons, on the 6th of April 1756, passed three introductory resolutions: that the enabling this hospital to receive all the children that should be offered was the only method to render the charity of lasting and general utility: that the assistance of parliament was necessary, and that it should be enabled to appoint proper places in all counties, ridings, or divisions of the kingdom,

dom, for the reception of all exposed and deserted young children. The House then voted 10,000*l.*, accompanied with a condition for the reception of children under a certain age; which the corporation first fixed at two, then at six, and afterwards at twelve months. On the 2d of June, the first day of general reception, one hundred and seventeen children were received, and before the 31st of December 1757, a space of little more than one year and an half, their number amounted to five thousand five hundred and ten.

The charity now obtained the splendid name of a national establishment. The king had declared himself its patron, large sums were granted, and the number of infants increased to six thousand, which they had no adequate income to maintain; country hospitals were established at Ackworth in Yorkshire; in Kent, Salop, and Bucks, and afterwards in Cheshire, and at Barnet in Middlesex.

From this prodigious increase in the establishment, the site of the hospital was in many instances converted to a burial ground; many children received at the gate did not live to be carried into the wards; others were sent from distant parishes to secure them from the risk of becoming chargeable, these were returned to their parents, and prosecutions were commenced at the expence of the charity; this gave rise to a material alteration in the mode of reception; the House of Commons, in April 1759, disapproved this practice, in the next session, an inquiry was instituted, and on the 8th of February 1760, the House resolved that the general admission of all children indiscriminately, under a certain age, had been attended with many evil consequences, and should be discontinued, and ordered an estimate of the expence of maintaining those already in the hospital. The governors, on the following day, resolved to continue to execute the purposes for which they were incorporated, so far as they could, not doubting that parliament would enable them to support all such children as they had or should receive, in obedience to their resolutions.

The corporation received continual parliamentary assistance, during fifteen years, till 1771, when it ceased, at an average of not less than 33,000*l.* per annum, and the number of children in 1769 was reduced to 1000, by apprenticing all who could be placed out. The battle of Minden had afforded great cause for the consideration of this society, which they very humanely and judiciously exercised, in receiving the orphans of many of the soldiers who died in
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that war, from four to twelve years of age; and the court resolved, that if, at any future time, application should be made for the reception of any other children in similar cases of distress, the general committee should be empowered to receive so many as they should think proper, of ages not exceeding five years; this limitation was done away in 1761, upon a further reception of orphans of soldiers, and the committee were empowered to receive those of soldiers or sailors, although their age should exceed five years, their number and circumstances being specially reported to the next court; such an extension of the charity, and a considerable deficiency of subscriptions during the parliamentary grants, served to incumber the resources, and to render both reduction and economy absolutely necessary, especially when it was found that many of the children out of so large a number did not, from various causes, possess sufficient capacities of health or of mind to be placed out as apprentices. Some of the presents heretofore given at the expiration of their apprenticeships were withheld, but have since been renewed with good effect, and their public appearance in the chapel has operated as an example to the others. The country hospitals were also discontinued, and the establishment reduced to its permanent income.

The improvements of the revenue by granting building leases of the lands not wanted was the next method adopted; and in May 1775, the committee were empowered to receive proposals, and contract for letting the land on the south side of the private road leading into Gray's Inn-lane, for a term of ninety-nine years. The above resolution was soon after rescinded, and the scheme of building was postponed until the leases of the Rugby school should expire, and a treaty was opened for exchanging some of their land; the rents did not then exceed 8*l.* 3*s.*; no arrangement was effected, and the exchange was indefinitely postponed.

A principal resource was derived from the collections at the chapel, which were considerably augmented by three blind children, whom the committee had caused to be instructed in music; the whole receipt in 1766 was 37*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.*, in 1795 was 1594*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*, and in 1806 was 2816*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* Their system proceeded to the reduction of some and union of other offices, by which an annual saving is computed at not less than 100*l.*; and subsequent to these methods of reform, a kitchen has been constructed on the plan of Count Rumford, and "the direction with regard to the consumption of fuel having been strictly adhered

hered to, it has been found to answer very completely;” the saving in coals has been twenty-five chaldrons yearly; one cook in the place of two finds it an easy duty, and the iron work requires less repair, &c.

Ten acres of the fifty-six purchased of Lord Salisbury had been occupied by the hospital and its conveniences, the addition of as much more in the areas and squares immediately surrounding it is the least quantity that has ever been proposed to be left uncovered by building; so that the hospital in any event was to stand in the centre of twenty acres of ground; some reasons operated in the minds of several governors against any improvement of the remaining thirty-six acres, but the increasing expence having exceeded the income, a committee of inquiry was appointed in 1785, and the question of building was again resumed in March 1787, the committee were empowered to receive proposals, which authority was afterwards recalled, on the ground that the loss of circulation of air would be detrimental and contrary to the original institution. This resolution was again rescinded in the following December, and so much of the estate as lies south of, and adjoining to the road leading from the gates of the hospital to Gray’s Inn-lane was ordered to be let on building leases; this was confirmed in March 1788.

In April 1789, a petition was preferred to the Duke of Bedford, for permitting openings into his private road, but as no favourable answer was obtained, the committee proceeded to stake out the eastern part of their estate; and a select committee of five governors named, who were empowered to conduct the business of letting the land. By their estimate the probable accession of ground rents would amount to 4000*l.*, and the subsequent measures have reduced this calculation almost to a certainty, as the net rental has been increased to 3045*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*, exclusive of 552*l.* 15*s.* under a pepper corn rent, but which are now receivable.

A plan of considerable merit prepared by Mr. Merryweather, the secretary, for the proposed buildings, was adopted in January 1791, in which the opening of Queen-square, though with some diminution of the expected ground-rents, was proposed to be continued of the same width over the estate; a benefit which, after every effort of persuasion, the proprietors of the square declined to accept; in December 1793, an advantageous proposal was made for the ground lying north of Queen-square, and a meeting of the inhabitants of the square with the committee having produced no alteration of opinion, the ground was at length
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let to Mr. Burton, on a plan as favourable as well could be to the adjoining square. In December 1794, the building committee reported the assent of the Duke of Bedford, for four openings into his road at the north end of Southampton-row.

The gradual and splendid progress of the buildings, and an increase in the number and amount of benefactions and chapel collections, have enabled this corporation to replace the stock which they had been compelled to sell for the maintenance of the charity, to repair the hospital, to liquidate its outstanding debts, and at the same time to gradually increase the establishment of its children, with a prospect of further augmentation; and for this good purpose the committee are directed to report how far the progressive increase of the rents and resources will justify an extension of the charity; and in order to open the doors equally and impartially to all proper objects, notice is published of vacancies for several children.

The ordinary age of reception is under two months; the previous good character and present necessity of the mother, and the desertion of the father, are inquired into, and also whether reception and secrecy will be attended with the consequence of the mother's being replaced in a course of virtue, and in a way of obtaining an honest livelihood: where these concurrent circumstances can be ascertained on the testimony of credible persons, the unfortunate mother is requested to apply herself with her own petition, and is assured that both recommendation and patronage will be unnecessary and useless; these principles are strictly attended to. If the mothers are in distress, the general committee have a discretion to make them some weekly allowance till the day of the child's admittance, exclusive of which the governors have formed a fund for the occasional relief of those whose circumstances have compelled them to part with or pawn their clothes for the maintenance of their children, and other unavoidable expences, and thereby have been prevented from getting into service or of obtaining other means of a livelihood.

THE MASONIC CHARITY. The design of this institution is to raise the means of clothing and educating the sons of deceased and indigent ancient freemasons; it was founded in the year 1798, and has received great assistance and encouragement from its noble patron, his grace the Duke of Athol. Children may be admitted at seven years of age, and continued till fourteen; they are taught reading,

ing, writing, and arithmetic; and when they quit the school are, in certain cases, bound apprentices to suitable trades, premiums being allowed toward placing them out.

THE FREEMASON'S CHARITY *for Female Children*, Saint George's-fields. The purpose of this institution is to preserve the female offspring of indigent freemasons from the dangers and misfortunes to which a distressed situation naturally exposes them. To extend the hand of compassion, to give assistance where most wanted, and to render this design extensively beneficial, a plan was submitted to her royal highness the Duchess of Cumberland, by the Chevalier Ruspini. Her Royal Highness humanely condescended to take it under her protection, and accepted the title of patroness. His royal Highness the Duke of Cumberland, grand master, and their royal highnesses the Prince of Wales, the Dukes of York and Gloucester, expressed their approbation and disposition to support it by their patronage. In consequence, on the 25th of March 1788, this charity was instituted for maintaining, clothing, and educating the female children and orphans of indigent brethren belonging to the ancient and honourable society of free and accepted masons. The great encouragement it has since received has enabled the governors to increase the number of children from fifteen to sixty, to which number such augmentation will from time to time take place as the fund of the charity will admit. They are admitted into the school from the age of five to ten years, without any restriction as to their parochial settlement, whether in town or country, and continued until they attain the age of fifteen; they are carefully instructed in every domestic employment, and when they quit the school are bound apprentices for four years, either to trades, or as domestic servants, which-ever may be found most suitable to their respective capacities, and have a supply of clothing given them to the value of 4*l.* 4*s.*, and as an encouragement for serving their apprenticeship faithfully, a premium of 5*l.* 5*s.* is also given them, on producing their master or mistress's testimonial of their good behaviour.

THE OFFERTORY SCHOOL, Little Vine-street. In this establishment the alms and contributions offered at the communion of the Lord's Supper, in the parish church and chapels of Saint James, Westminster, are disposed of as a fund for the benefit of poor children. It has been found sufficient to establish and maintain a day-school where fifty boys are taught to read, write, and cast accounts, according to Dr. Bell's method; they have also a new suit
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of clothes at Whitsuntide every year; are carefully instructed in the doctrines of christianity, according to the church of England, are conducted to church on the Lord's day, to early prayers at seven o'clock in the summer, and at eight in the winter, and catechised at the usual times. The school is superintended by the minister and parish officers, and great care is taken that the oblations given on such solemn occasions are faithfully administered. The admission of scholars is limited to the sons of parishioners, who are educated for trades and handicrafts, to which at the usual age they are bound apprentice.

THE BENEVOLENT SOCIETY OF ST. PATRICK. A considerable number of noblemen and gentlemen, natives of Ireland, descendants from natives, or connected by property, ties of blood, the high offices they have filled, or alliances with families of that kingdom, met on the 17th of March 1784, and formed themselves into a body, under the name of "the Benevolent Society of St. Patrick." They immediately set on foot a subscription for the establishment of schools in or near this metropolis for the education of children born of Irish parents, residing in or near London. Under the sanction of the king, and the presidency of the Duke of Kent, then Prince Edward, a general meeting was held, when a correspondence between the trustees of a former Irish charitable society and the Marquis of Buckingham was taken into consideration; and it was referred to a committee to report a plan for the union of the two institutions, and also a code of rules. In March 1799, it was arranged that sixteen children elected by the monthly committee out of the general body of 120, solely on the score of their personal merits, should be entirely provided for, out of the fund, without expence to their parents. The society, in 1801, engaged a piece of ground in St. George's-fields, for the purpose of erecting a suitable building by subscription, where the children may by degrees be taken wholly under their own care.

THE PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY, St. George's-fields. This institution was formed in 1788, for the prevention of crimes, and the reform of the criminal poor, by the encouragement of industry and the culture of good morals among those children who were training up to vicious courses, public plunder, infamy, and ruin; and was designed as an introduction to a new system of national police.

The children taken under the care of this society are either the offspring of convicted felons, or such as have themselves been engaged in criminal practices.

The first are orphans, under circumstances which, instead of recommending them to the protection of others, operate to exclude them from reputable situations, and to render them obnoxious.

The children of the second class are often such as have been guilty of offences at an age which alone saves them from legal punishment; in such cases, they become hardened by detection, perhaps publicly disgraced, and thenceforward the companions of dishonesty: such are those who have been conducted to the magistrate for thefts, pilfering, and fraud; and discharged for want of legal evidence, or through unwillingness of parties to prosecute; or such as after conviction have been recommended to the care of this society as fitter subjects for discipline and education than for the vengeance of the law.

It is not absolutely necessary that a child should be carried into a court of justice, or before a magistrate, previous to its being received by the society as a criminal: but it should be observed that objects are not admitted on account of mere youthful irregularities, or the effects of a truant disposition, or of such acts as bear the complexion of vagrancy, rather than of fraud or felony; for though the society is aware that such conduct is one step towards destruction, it is obliged from the number of applications made in behalf of criminal children, to confine its attention to cases of great delinquency. There are some within its walls, upon whom (though sentenced to transportation or death) the law must have had its course, if the institution had not, by preparing an asylum for the offender when pardoned, afforded to the crown an opportunity of exercising mercy without endangering the public safety.

The children under the care of this society are instructed in several useful trades; particularly those of the printer, the copper-plate-printer, the book-binder, shoe-maker, taylor, rope-maker, and twine-spinner; and as the capital of the society is employed in these manufactures, persons purchasing of or employing these youths do a charity without loss to themselves. The girls are entirely trained to domestic industry.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY. This society comprehends a school for general instruction and clothing of the sons of poor clergymen, naval and military officers, reduced tradesmen, and mechanics: it was instituted in 1792, under the patronage of the Duke of York, by Mr. Thomas Collingwood, of Upper Titchfield-street, Mary-le-bone. The children who discover particular talents or genius, have an

opportunity of learning the rudiments of the Latin or French language; and those boys who are intended for the sea service are taught the general principles of geography, navigation, and drawing.

RAINE'S CHARITIES, St. George's in the East. Henry Raine, Esq. the founder of this institution, having acquired a considerable estate consisting chiefly of freehold estates in the parish and neighbourhood of St. George in the East, where he had been bred up from childhood and then resided, and having assisted his relations, who were then in prosperity and no longer needed his protection, conceived it a duty of gratitude to Providence, and obedience to the precepts of Christianity, to settle part of his substance for charitable purposes. With this view he contributed and added to those contributions as his estate increased; and afterwards built two commodious large schools in Fawdon-fields, in that parish, about the year 1719, and settled regulations for their management. On the 22d of June 1736, he executed a conveyance to the Rev. Dr. William Simpson, the rector, and four other gentlemen, in order to make provision for the maintenance, support, and instruction of fifty boys and fifty girls, and for the habitation of a master and mistress. By his will he added to his former donations, and made a singular provision for bestowing annually, on one girl of six who should in the course of the year leave the school, with proper certificates of regularity, and exact observance of religious duties, 100*l.* as a marriage portion, to be paid on her wedding day. The female to whom the donation is given, becomes entitled to it by drawing a lot, and on the day of wedding, which is always on the first of May, 5*l.* in addition to the portion is spent for a dinner.

SUNDAY SCHOOL SOCIETY. To promote the design of administering religious instruction to children of the poor on the Sabbath-day, instead of their being suffered to waste it as a holiday in thoughtless idleness, Robert Raikes, Esq. of Painswic, in Gloucestershire, first suggested and put in practice a Sunday school in his own district, and under his own inspection: his success soon induced others to follow the example. Towns and villages established their schools, and their importance excited a ready liberality towards their support; but many of these were set up in very small districts, remote from either the county town or the metropolis, and the want of patronage threatened their discontinuance. The benevolence of the capital was therefore solicited for their encouragement and preservation, and for the supply of such books as were necessary toward their progress. In the

the year 1785, therefore, the Sunday School Society was established in London. The plan is to promote by correspondence and effectual communication the establishment of Sunday schools in the country, to induce the opulent inhabitants to visit and superintend them, to solicit subscriptions for them, and to suggest improvements; to provide Bibles, Testaments, and spelling-books, for the use of the scholars; to direct that all the scholars attend some place of public worship every Sunday, as their parents may approve, clean and decent in their dress and behaviour; and during the intervals of the day, that they be taught to read the Bible and to learn the principles of the christian faith. The success of the institution has extended it through England, Wales, Ireland, and the adjacent islands. The objects of this charity are poor persons of each sex and of any age; their teachers, by the directions of the committee, or of their correspondents, oblige all who are committed to their care to attend public worship, unless prevented by illness or any other sufficient cause: they also take care that their scholars are clean, and if any of them are guilty of lying, swearing, pilfering, and talking in an indecent manner, or otherwise misbehave themselves, they are to reprove them; and, if after repeated reproof, they are not reformed, they are dismissed from the school. The religious observation of the Christian Sabbath being an essential object with this society, the exercises of the scholars on that day are restricted to reading in the Old and New Testament, and to spelling, as a preparative for it. This is the summary of the regulations of each school, which the teacher reads to them on the first Sunday in every month. During the first fourteen years which this society existed 2,917 schools were established, and 246,724 scholars instructed in them, and the books distributed were 249,896 spelling-books, 55,881 Testaments, and 7,423 Bibles, and to such schools as needed pecuniary assistance the sum of 4,165*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.* was advanced.

WELSH SCHOOL. The charity school of the most honourable and loyal society of Ancient Britons was established for instructing, clothing, maintaining, and apprenticing poor children, descended of Welsh parents, born in and near London, who have no parochial settlement therein. It was established on the 1st of March, 1714, in honour of the birth-day of her Royal Highness Caroline, then Princess of Wales, which fortunately happened to be coincident with the commemoration of the titular saint of the principality. His Royal Highness George, then Prince of Wales, upon an address, presented on the 24th of the same month, was

pleased to honour the society with his patronage, under the style and title of "The most honourable and Royal Society of Ancient Britons." The subscriptions at first being small, the society engaged a room near Hatton-garden, and took only twelve poor children upon the establishment. When their charitable designs became better known, and the subscriptions increased, they increased the number to forty, and in 1737, a subscription was begun for erecting a school on Clerkenwell-green. They were soon enabled to take some poor children entirely on themselves, not only to be educated, but boarded and clothed. As the school-house on Clerkenwell-green would not admit of enlargement sufficient for this purpose, a piece of freehold ground was purchased in 1772, and secured to the use of the charity, on the right-hand side of the road from Gray's Inn-lane to Pancras, which is sufficient to accommodate one hundred children.

MISCELLANEOUS CHARITIES. Beside those already described in classes, there are many other charitable institutions which extend the benefits of benevolence, both in donations and instruction to numerous ranks of society. Some are for the conversion, civilization, and general improvement, by various means, of those to whom the advantages of revelation and social improvement have been hitherto unknown. Such are the African Institution; the American Indian Civilization: the Society for Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts; the Hibernian Society; the Missionary Society; that for Missions to Africa and the East; and the Society for Conversion of Negroes. Some give to those whom indigence or indifference would otherwise deprive of such benefits, the inestimable volumes of the Holy Scripture, and the sound deductions drawn from them by learned and religious men: such are the British and Foreign Bible Society; the Naval and Military Bible Society; the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge; the Endeavour Society; the Society for promoting Religious Knowledge among the Poor; and the Religious Tract Society. In some instances individuals have devoted sums of money to the relief of particular calamities; and charities are distributed according to their directions by corporations; or in other cases associated bodies continue to collect and distribute monies according to an established plan. Among the former of these may be classed Came's, Hethrington's, and Stock's charities for the blind; and Came's charity for the deaf and dumb. Among the latter are found the Choral Fund; the Literary Fund for the relief of

of authors in distress; the Musical Fund, and New Musical Fund. Some require from the claimant a previous sacrifice of some portion of his own gains, and have, therefore, some affinity with benefit societies; as the Society for Relief of disabled Merchant Seamen, their Widows and Children; the Society of Schoolmasters, the Theatrical Fund, and the Stock Exchange Fund.

A few other charities merit particular enumeration: these are

THE SOCIETY FOR BETTERING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR. Founded in 1796, with a view to examine the cause of distress, to remove difficulties in the way of parochial relief, to facilitate the distribution of charitable benefactions, to inspect workhouses and charitable institutions in order to point out improvements, and to aid the important cause of religious instruction to the mature and to the young. Out of this society has sprung a committee of ladies, who interest themselves in all the objects as far as comes within the cognizance of female regard. The reports and other publications of this society are deemed of great value and importance.

THE SOCIETY FOR THE DISCHARGE AND RELIEF OF PERSONS IMPRISONED FOR SMALL DEBTS THROUGHOUT ENGLAND, *instituted in February 1772.* Its objects are those whose debts or composition for them does not exceed 10*l.*; those have the preference who are aged or infirm; have the largest families unprovided for; are the most likely to be useful to the community, and appear to have lost their liberty by unavoidable misfortunes, and not by fraud, vice, or extravagance. The committee are empowered to relieve helpless families which suffer by the faults of their principals, and no debtor can be relieved a second time. In the same spirit with this is,

THE PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY, AT MILE-END, FOR THE SAME AND OTHER PURPOSES. One moiety of the subscription is applied for the discharge of poor debtors from imprisonment, and the other for relief of poor persons and families, as the directors think fit. The annual subscription is only 12*s.*, and 5*l.* 5*s.* constitutes a life governor.

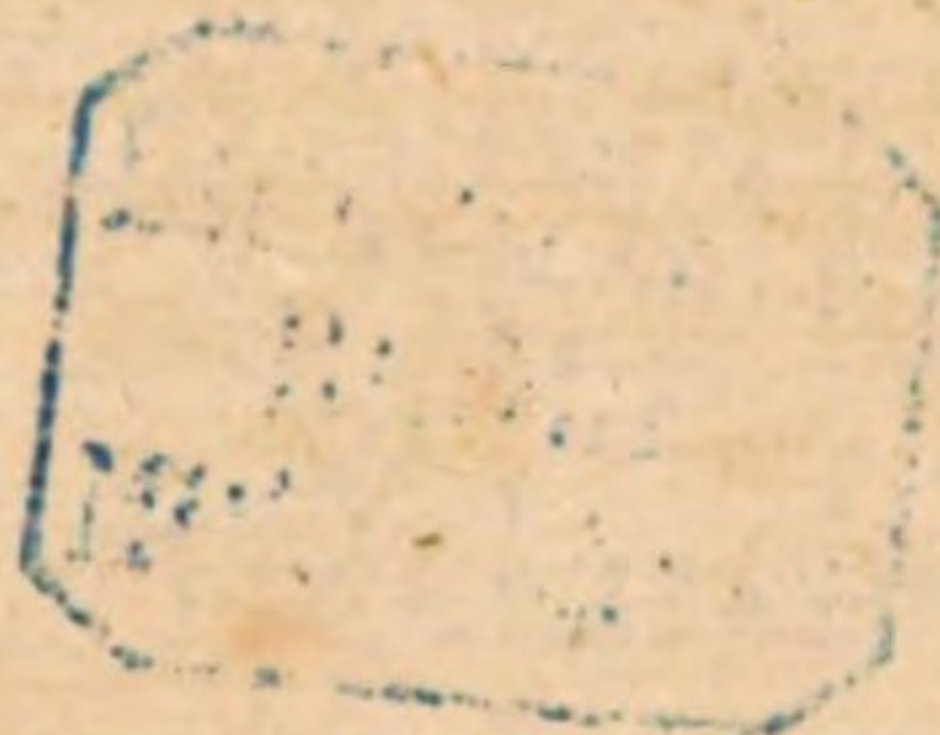
THE ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY, established A. D. 1774, by Dr. Cogan, with the co-operation of the late Dr. Hawes, for recovery of the apparently dead by drowning, or other causes of suffocation. The obvious usefulness of this society has given great extension to its operations; and there are in all parts of the kingdom medical men instructed and ready to

to apply to sufferers the means of restoring animation. Ingenuity and industry have also been incessantly employed in improving and furthering these means, and in communicating the results for the benefit of mankind.

If the charities here mentioned constituted the whole mass of voluntary donation, no man could contemplate such a sacrifice, in addition to the vast revenue raised by the poor's rate, without astonishment and reverence; but, in fact, it does not comprize any thing like the total of donation in and near the metropolis. Many charities have not been named on account of their similarity to others, and the apparent tediousness of recapitulating mere names. But besides these, there are few considerable towns in the kingdom that have not their alms-houses, their hospital, their infirmary, their dispensary, and their charitable establishments and collections, according to the need and circumstances of the neighbourhood. In most places opulent individuals supply the poor in illness, particularly lying-in, and in other cases of necessity, with bed-clothing, linen, medicine, wine, and food. In the enumeration already made, it must have struck the reader that there is no mode of distress that has not some relief appointed, nor any state in which a pauper can be in society, in which benevolence does not tender its aid. In the moment of birth, in the perils of infancy and adolescence, nurture, education, and instruction in a trade are offered; when the parties behave themselves well in these first stages, moderate premiums facilitate their entrance into life. In the subsequent progress of man every species of calamity has its distinct mode of relief, and every kind of necessity its corresponding supply. All visitations of Providence, all diseases or hurts incidental to trade or arising from accident; the sudden attack of illness, or the inevitable wasting of age; penury, from whatever cause it may arise; all have claims on the funds devoted by considerate benevolence to the public good. Nor is it always necessary that the claim should be so made as to wound the feelings of those who are ashamed to solicit. The true Christian gentleness of charity has devised means, as in the donations from the literary fund, to conceal from the most inquisitive scrutiny, the names of those who would hold down their heads if it were known that they had received alms. They then who have begun life virtuously, and are arrested in their progress by misfortune, may look to public benevolence as a secure resource; but must they who have strayed from virtue abandon themselves to despair? No. To the repentant prostitute, to the diseased libertine, to the offspring of

of licentious intercourse, abandoned by its parent, and to the scorned outcast of society, the child of the condemned malefactor, the house of charity opens its door. Religious instruction reclaims and purifies ; virtuous example and continual industry create good habits, and they who in a less benevolent state of society would continue to trace the meanders of vice and crime to their termination in despair, or at the gallows, regain the delightful paths of virtue and honesty, become regenerated members of society, live in peace, and die in hope.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.



of his own mind, and in the end, he is left with a sense of isolation and despair. The story is a powerful commentary on the human condition, and the author's use of symbolism and metaphor is masterful. The tiger, in this context, represents the wild, untamed forces of nature, and the man's struggle against it is a metaphor for the struggle against the forces of fate and destiny. The story is a masterpiece of literature, and it is a testament to the power of the written word.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

Adolphus, John, 1768-1845

The political state of the British empire, containing a general view of
the domestic and foreign possessions of the crown, the laws, commerce,
revenues, offices and other establishments, civil and military
Bd.: 3. VIII, 679 S.

London 1818

Brit. 603 o-3

urn:nbn:de:bvb:12-bsb10282551-5